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CRUSADE AGAINST SOCIAL VICE

GAURI R. BANERJEE

"Prostitution is one of our oldest social problems," says the author. In this article, Dr. (Miss) Banerjee points out the various measures by which this evil can be eradicated. It is not enough to declare prostitution illegal, but to have institutions with trained social case workers, psychiatrists and psychologists, who understand all the subtle and complex factors that go to make a prostitute. These institutions for the rehabilitation of such women, should give individual treatment, create a homelike atmosphere, provide for occupational training and higher education. But what is of utmost importance is that society should change its attitude towards the fallen.

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Prostitution is one of our oldest social problems. It antedates the dawn of history. In the Vedas,¹ the earliest record of Hindu civilisation, prostitution is frequently referred to. Though known in the Vedic period it became a legalised institution in the post-Vedic period² and received liberal patronage from the rulers of the country.

Apart from the kings there were rich and prosperous individuals who called for the services of an army of professional women. To meet this demand a constant supply of women was needed and a regular

trade in prostitution developed. This gave rise to a class of people now called exploiters. It has often been thought that the traffic in women is a recent evil. But even as early as in the days of the Arthashastra of Kautilya (in early A. D.) procurers were known and they have been mentioned as 'Stri vyavaharinah' (traders in women). These people did not have to ply their trade secretly, for as we gather from the said work, they used to keep the state informed about their business and daily income.³ References to female brothel-keepers are also found in ancient Indian literature. They used to make their

¹ The word Sadharani in the Rig Veda (I. 167. 4) suggests a courtesan. So does Rama in Taittiriya Aranyaka (V. 8. 13). In the Rig Veda we find that many solitary and unprotected maidens, 'brotherless maidens' gave themselves up to prostitution. After the death of the father a brother was the natural guardian of an unmarried sister. If she did not have a brother the chances of her being tempted into immoral ways were great. The Rig Veda refers to this matter as one of frequent occurrence (I. 124. 7; IV. 5.5; VIII. 35.5)

² During this period the Aryans scattered over a vast stretch of land which they divided into several kingdoms. Formerly the Aryans had followed the tradition of ruthless warfare to establish their foothold in India. But by the post-Vedic period they had been well settled in Northern India and had taken to an easy and luxurious life. Consequently, in these kingdoms, all sorts of luxuries and pomp were maintained. Princes and princelings became accustomed by the post-Vedic period to extend their liberal patronage to courtesans. These women were engaged to enhance the splendour of royal courts by music and dancing. From the Arthashastra of Kautilya it is gathered that ganika had become an indispensable factor in royal courts. It states that a superintendent of prostitutes was to employ a woman noted for her beauty, youth and accomplishments on a salary of 1,000 panas per annum to work as a 'ganika'. Whether she was born in a prostitute's family or not mattered little.

Ganikadhyakshah ganikanvayamaganika nvayam va rupa yauvana silpa sam-pannam va sahasrana ganikam karayet.

Arthashastra Adhikarana II Prakarana 44.

³ Ganika bhogamayatim purusham cha nivedayet Etena nata nartaka gayaka vadaka vagjivana kusilava plavaka saubhika charananam strivyavanarinam striyo gudha jivascha vyakhyatah Arthashastra Adhikarana II Prakarana 44.

own daughters and even other girls take to this profession.⁴

Since the state itself patronised prostitution, it could not introduce strict measures to abolish it, and thus the traffic in women came to be in vogue in ancient India. It does not, however, necessarily mean that the standard of morality on the whole was low amongst the people. Though prostitution was sanctioned, we find frequent references in our ancient literature in favour of virtuous life. Perhaps, in ancient days too, there were people as we have them in modern society, who, even when they did not approve of prostitution, condoned it thinking that it kept the rest of the community clean by making rapes and assaults less frequent. As a matter of fact, prostitution does tremendous harm to society. It encourages traffic in women and children, and menaces public health by spreading venereal disease along with their accompanying miseries.

Segregation of the prostitute is often suggested as a remedy for the evils of prostitution. This idea is based on the belief that, if compulsory medical inspection of all prostitutes is required, the spreading of the disease can be controlled. But the experiences of other countries which have tried this method only go to show that their belief is false. Even after the prostitute has been medically examined and declared free from disease, a customer can infect her and she, in turn, can spread the infection to others. Thus it is a vicious circle. Moreover, this regularization of prostitution will mean perpetuation of the institution with its accompanying evils. If we want to eradicate prostitution, we have to take various measures. Stamping

out prostitution is a broad community enterprise involving all the community services in existence, whether private or governmental, and also the creation of new agencies to handle other problems which may arise due to the unceasing attack on this profession. Human nature being what it is, prostitution cannot just be legislated out of existence. To the customer, prostitution seems to be the best recreation. To those engaged in it, prostitution is the least strenuous and the most highly paid job. We have to attack prostitution and at the same time meet the various needs of persons to whom it provides vicarious satisfaction.

To eradicate prostitution we first need the force of law to make it illegal and intelligent policing to make this law effective. In various big cities brothel-keeping has been declared illegal, but due to the lack of adequate policing brothel-keepers are able to circumvent the law. These brothel-keepers rent a building and keep women to work as prostitutes. The building is divided in cubicles. Though the brothel-keeper pays the whole rent to the landlord, private arrangement is made with him to issue individual receipts for the rooms in the names of each of the prostitutes living in the building. Thus the brothel-keeper avoids being known as such and plies his trade secretly, evading the law. Watchful policing is required to detect not only the persons responsible for this trade, but also the procurers who run massage parlours, taverns, and carry on commercialised prostitution in disguise. Then we have also to put an end to prostitutes who practise independently. In addition to the repression of commer-

⁴ *Matari cha krurasilayam arthaparayam chayata syat tadabhaye matrikayam satu gamyena nati priyeta prasahya cha duhitaramanayet Kamasutra Adhikarana VI. Adhyaya II verse 3-4.*

cialised and individual prostitution, provision must be made for the care and treatment of arrested women and girls as well as for the prevention of women entering this profession.

Here arises the real problem. If today, prostitution is declared a crime and the Government rounds up all the prostitutes, what is to be done with them? Are they to be sent to prisons? It seems absurd to round up prostitutes only to send them to prison for plying a trade which is made profitable by people who condone or patronise it. Arrest is not a deterrent for most prostitutes carry on, no matter how often they are arrested. Until a programme of rehabilitation is inaugurated, we can expect no adequate solution. This requires action which will permit and help them to return to normal life. But this cannot be attained without a staff which is capable of handling the work. We need institutions to admit such women and work towards their rehabilitation. Now-a-days, from time to time, the police rounds up prostitutes and takes them to Rescue Homes or Vigilance Shelters, where they live with other girls who are first offenders or destitutes. These institutions admit all types of girls and it makes classification difficult. In some homes, girls coming from brothels are segregated from other girls which develops in the brothel-girls a feeling of inferiority and an attitude of vengeance. For more reasons than one separate institutions should be provided for those coming from houses of prostitution. After they have been in such an institution for some time, and every case has been considered individually, those who are not serious cases may be transferred to other institutions meant for widows, destitute girls or orphans.

Prostitutes are a diverse lot. There are some who have taken to a life of prostitution to earn more money. Some turn to this profession owing to their inability to obtain food, clothing and shelter. Some girls when ostracised by society for their first mis-step, swing over to this line to be in a group where they can have a position of their own. There are some girls who are kidnapped by traffickers and put into a house of ill fame. After a few years they get so used to this life that to be weaned away from it means insecurity to them, and they prefer to stay in this field rather than give it up. There are some feeble-minded women who are misled and do not understand the pros and cons of it. These girls should be distinguished from another group whose psychological urges lead them to prostitution. "Some women are driven by unconscious impulse to find in reality a figure to play the role of the loving father who was absent from their childhood. Behind the promiscuity of these clients there often is a deep fear and distrust of men. When such women are able to win a man's attention and in a sense subjugate him, they allay their own anxiety and at the same time enjoy the illusion of having found a father figure."⁵ There are those who have not been able to work out their inferiority feeling in early childhood. A female child tends to be quite concerned about the fact that she does not have a genital organ like that of the boy. Her feeling about it arouses a state called penis envy. If the child has not been helped by parents to get over it by constant support and explanation that her anatomical make-up is different and that it does not mean inferiority, chances are that she will develop attitudes of bitterness and revenge towards men, and it

⁵ Clothier, Florence, "Problems of Illegitimacy as they concern the worker in the Field of Adoption", *Mental Hygiene*, October, 1941, p. 587.

may be their aim forcibly to castrate them and take something away for themselves. What they really want is the penis, but actually what they take is the money. Women of this type with unconscious urge for masculine aggressiveness may turn to prostitution when they find an opportunity for it, or rather when circumstances lead them to it.

As prostitutes are the products of so many subtle factors, it needs a great deal of skill to understand those unfortunate women. Usually persons in charge of Women's Homes think that as these women are sex promiscuous the solution of their problem lies in marriage where they can gratify their sex urge. Quite often these women end up in broken married life. Marriage is not just sex life. It has other responsibilities also for which they are unprepared. This failure in married life makes them bitter against man and if their early inferiority feeling has not been worked out, then this marital failure adds fuel to the fire. For some women their whole experience as prostitutes is so traumatic that they cannot adjust themselves in any situation unless they have been helped to get over it gradually.

Women established in the life of prostitution need tactful handling. At present we have very few trained workers to do this work. It is true that some workers even without professional training have brought about a change for the better which perhaps was due to the 'supportive relationship'. The steady devotion, warmth and interest of the worker are of such importance to delinquent women that they improve despite the lectures and moralising which are considered to be basic in bringing about a change in the behaviour. Undoubtedly, the cases that make gain through 'support' are those of emotionally starved

women. They may gain some strength and self-confidence through their relationship with the workers. Mere supportive therapy applied to problems that are predominantly intra-psychic result in bewildering and frustrating failure. They need to be handled by skilled case workers with psychiatric orientation. Some women have to be treated by psychiatrists or psychoanalysts depending upon the nature of their problem. In short, if we believe today in the rehabilitation of prostitutes, we do so because we think of prostitution in terms of a disease that needs adequate treatment. The person offering treatment should be equipped with the necessary knowledge to deal with the disease.

The reclaimed women should be taught other ways of earning their livelihood. For this purpose we need institutions accommodating a large number of inmates, say about a thousand. A small Home meant for about thirty or forty inmates cannot provide the necessary facilities for occupational training. Each Provincial Government should, therefore, start an institution with a school, hospital, industrial plants and agricultural facilities for the care and vocational training of the many hundreds of women to be rehabilitated. At the same time it should be borne in mind that such an institution should not adopt the plan of mass treatment for inmates, or its very purpose will be defeated. The institution needs to be based on cottage plan. Its efforts to be more homelike by having cottages instead of large dormitories, smaller dining-rooms instead of congregate and silent eating, smaller groups and a little privacy instead of big groups are likely to be helpful in the rehabilitation of a prostitute. She needs individualisation. She must not only be investigated before she comes in, but must be followed and

studied conscientiously after she reaches the institution. The prostitute should not be lost in a group so that her personality will fail to receive consideration. An institution meant for the rehabilitation of prostitutes should have a trained psychiatrist, psychologist and some trained case workers. As there is a dearth of professionally trained social workers in our country, the services of workers who are untrained but have sympathy, warmth of feeling and interest in others can be utilised. These workers can work under the guidance of trained case workers and develop social thinking. Some of them can act as house-mothers in the institutions.

Case study together with classification would help the institution in rendering individual treatment as against mass treatment. Correctional institutions in India have so far subjected their charges to mass treatment. They have been made to follow routine schedule, to observe the same rules and regulations without reference to the individual's past experiences, special needs, interests and abilities. Individualisation in the field of treatment is necessary not only for taking into consideration the interest and capacities of each individual but also for making the best use of her assets.

An important factor in the field of an institutional programme is occupational training. It seems expedient that every institution should follow a mixed economy of agriculture and industry. A farm is an essential part of it in order that such primary necessities of life as milk, butter, meat, fruits and vegetables might be produced, as far as possible, through the labour of the inmates. Though farm and land labour should form essential source of employment and income, industries too need to have their place in them. It does not, however,

mean that an institution is to be turned into a sweat shop. Proper attention to financial matters does not mean exploitation of inmate workers. Our goal should be to rebuild delinquents into useful members of society, not to make money, nor to impose upon them conditions which free workers have been fighting against for a long time. In other words, the aim should be to make an institution self-supporting as far as possible and not to run it for the sake of profiteering or exploiting the inmates. All the same the question of allowing the products of such institutions to compete with those of free labour will inevitably arise, and it will be used as an argument against the establishment of such an institution. It is obvious, however, that, if the object is to assist the inmates to go back into the world well equipped to earn an honest living, there must be some slight sacrifice of private interests to public advantage.

In chalking out the daily routine of the institution it is desirable to devote only half the day to occupational training so that the rest of the time may be used for education and recreation. This will train inmates to work at the standard of speed and efficiency required in jobs outside. Inmates should be kept occupied with interesting and useful work. Machines, which displace human labour, should as far as possible, be avoided. Cottage industries should be encouraged. Farming, raising poultry and running a dairy can give occupation to a number of women. Activities in the industrial section include tailoring, embroidery, knitting, making lace, dolls and ornamental leather goods, spinning, weaving, carpentry, soap-making, canning fruit and vegetables, manufacture of jams, jellies, pickles, sweetmeats, biscuits, bread, lozenges, chocolates, syrups,

vinegar, 'bidis', cork goods, woollen yarn, cotton twists, mats, mattings, *etc.*

The hospital unit can train women as ward-maids and nurses. The educational programme should be more on the line of adult education. Those women, who are advanced in studies and show inclination and capacity may be encouraged to go in for higher education. The school should provide studies upto the high school standard. Promising persons may be sent to an outside school or college if considered desirable.

In choosing the site for this type of an institution, it is better to select a place which provides a happy combination of rural and urban influences. A suburb offers the advantage of enough acreage of land for farming and industry, play-fields, detached cottages with lawns and flower-beds and also for expansion to meet growing needs. Further, it will enable the inmates to take advantage of various centres, special clinics, *etc.* The important question of transportation must also be given careful consideration. If the site is within easy access of workers from cities with easy and frequent transportation facilities, much help can be taken from constant contact with workers other than those belonging to the institution. Also, participation in outside activities will provide a healthier atmosphere than can be expected from total segregation in a colony in a distinctly rural place.

Commitment to the institution needs to be indeterminate. There should be a parole board comprising of a few members of the staff and of the lay public and a few Government officials. When the staff of the institution feels that an inmate is ready for discharge then her case should be discussed by the parole board. The value

of parole will be lost if slipshod methods are employed in selecting parolees. The institution can continue supervision on parolees through the help of various private or governmental philanthropic institutions. They can help them in finding jobs and suitable living places and can give friendly guidance. These organisations should also try to educate public opinion and modify its attitude, for the public belief is "once a prostitute always a prostitute". A rehabilitated prostitute is a useful and respectable member of society and she must always be encouraged by the public to follow steadfastly her new way of life. It is possible that some prostitutes may be so sick emotionally that they will need custodial care in the institution. Such inmates should be paroled. It is true that they may not adjust themselves well in the institution. But in its protective environment it is expected that they will be able to direct their energy, to some extent, in socially approved channels and not become a menace to society.

The whole programme needs careful planning and also the services of psychiatrists, psychologists and trained social case workers. Therefore, it seems practical on the part of our Government (central or provincial) to start an experiment in one province with one institution for prostitutes. If it can organise its work well then another one may be attempted. It should declare brothel-keeping illegal and provide strict policing for the purpose. Independent prostitutes should be warned that if by the end of three or four years they do not change their way of life they will be treated as offenders. This will give them time enough to find other honourable means of livelihood. It should be left open for them to seek the help of this special institution whenever they need it.

Now let us turn our attention to the brothel-keeper. He needs severe handling. He should not be let off with a small fine, but should be punished with imprisonment. Even if he is discharged after some length of time, the police should keep a vigilant eye on his activities. If the brothel-keeper is herself a prostitute, she can be sent to the institution.

Closely related to the rehabilitation programme are the preventive measures against prostitution. We need both treatment and prevention for stamping it out. Any step taken by the community leading to general welfare is a step towards prevention of prostitution. The development of community recreation centres for children and adults, does lead towards healthy living. Raising the standard of living, having better housing conditions, taking measures for promoting family solidarity, giving facilities for the education of the masses and the development of mental hygiene programme—all of these are preventive measures. Besides, we need some social reforms for certain pernicious customs. Devadasi is still secretly prevalent in various parts of South India. It debar girls from getting married and promotes promiscuous sex life. Naiks of U. P. have the custom of prostituting their girls. There is an act to meet this evil, but as it is applicable only in the U.P. the parents flout the law by going out of U. P. to carry on their trade. The custom of 'reet' ⁶ among many hill communities of the Himalayan region, maltreatment of Hindu widows, the social

customs which debar the party from marrying the person one likes, promote promiscuous sex life. No less important are famines and wars. Staggering social disintegration caused by both throws women out into the streets. In many cases the bread-winners of families are killed in wars or die during famine and women are left unprotected so that they take to a life of shame to earn their livelihood.

Recently we have been facing the refugee problem. Quite a number of promiscuous sex relationships are coming to our notice. Many young refugee girls are facing insecurity on account of being rooted out from their hearth and home and some of them are seeking a sort of satisfaction in promiscuous life. Moreover, due to poverty, many are yielding to this sort of life. All measures taken by the community and the Government to rehabilitate displaced persons socially and emotionally will be a step towards the prevention of prostitution.

Further, society's attitude towards women who commit mistakes is so severe that very often they do not get any chance of retracing their steps. Society ostracises them and so they resort to prostitution in order to establish new positions for themselves and to wreak vengeance on society. Very few Rescue Homes have trained personnel to deal with such cases. As a result these women besides having a roof over their head and some food to keep them alive do not get much out of their stay there. They are subject to strict discipline, surveillance and harsh punishment so that

It implies in one transaction dissolution of a previous marriage as well as contraction of a second marriage. When a person wants to have a new wife and to dispose of the former one he sells her to some person and buys another. Thus women have to pass sometimes through the hands of six or seven customers. This transaction affects the sex morality of men and women and destroys family stability. In some States it is noticed that a State gets some amount as tax on the price received by the husband on the sale of the wife. As the system of 'reet' is a source of income to the States, they have not tried to put an end to this pernicious custom. Thus many women are sold for immoral purposes.

it is difficult for young women to take a liking for or form an attachment to these Homes. They seek every opportunity to get out of them and sometimes they end up in prostitution after having gone through a series of promiscuous relations. We need better methods to rehabilitate women turned out of their own home and hearth on account of their mis-step. A complex of factors is usually associated with sex delin-

quency, but a continued attack on these will have preventive values. The institution meant for the rehabilitation of prostitutes can also throw further light on various other factors that lead to prostitution. The case histories of the inmates can serve as good guides for directing preventive measures in newer areas, so far unknown to us.

DEFINITION AND SCOPE OF "HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY"

B. D. CHIRPUTKAR

Since the second World War, the subject of "Human Relations in Industry" has assumed considerable importance and, therefore, the author tries to define its nature and scope so as to promote a clearer understanding. "Good Industrial Relations are not the activity of any one individual or department of an organisation nor can it be practised or promulgated in isolated condition. It is the operating philosophy of business which runs through the entire organisation right from its managing-director to the janitor. It is the spirit or the attitude which an industry exhibits in all its transactions towards everyone with whom it deals or comes in contact."

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The subject of "Human Relations in Industry" has received a special significance and unusual emphasis in recent years, particularly since the second World War. The subject is known by several terms used and understood loosely by various persons according to the context. It would be considerably helpful to discuss and endeavour to define the nature and scope of this subject as it will promote a clearer understanding. This will be done in the present article with a view to stimulating thought and fuller consideration leading to a comprehensive and proper definition in due course. It follows that these discussions are far from conclusive and readers are requested to contribute to the proper understanding of this very important subject so as to evolve a correct and clear definition.

"Human Relations in Industry" is also called "Industrial Relations" or "Humanics" as distinguished from "Mechanics". Whereas Mechanics is the science dealing with machines, Humanics endeavours to deal with human beings connected with industries. Henry Ford II called this subject "Human Engineering".

The term "Industrial Relations" is comparatively of recent origin and developed out of another concept which was more commonly known as "Public Relations".

The year 1938 may be said to be the season when the idea of Public Relations caught a grip over the hearts of practically a whole generation of businessmen in the western countries, particularly in the United States, U. K., etc.

Before we discuss the various definitions set forth by different persons of these two analogous terms it would be interesting to know the genesis of the new concept. Propaganda was well known for centuries and had started to come into disrepute on account of its aggressiveness and misleading tendencies. Propaganda came to be gradually replaced by a subtle and indirect method of educating the public and became known as "Public Relations".

"Big Business" in the United States started getting unpopular as the industrial magnates were believed to be considerably influencing the affairs of the State and using their dominating power for exploitation. The growing discontent at the alarming power of big businessmen was reflected in several ways, particularly in the growth of Socialism, frequency of strikes, anti-trust legislation and criticism from literary and religious sources. The Rockefeller family was one of the main targets. As is well-known, Rockefellers dominated the oil industry (then controlled by the Standard Oil group) and were known to be the richest

in the world. Their influence in the political, industrial and business life was felt not only within the United States but also in most other countries. The very fact of their opulence and power was, however, the cause of their unpopularity which came to a head in 1914 during the events which followed the breaking out of the famous strike in Colorado. It came to be known as "Ludlow Massacre" and the popular feeling held Mr. Rockefeller responsible for the consequent reign of terror. John D. Rockefeller was touched and decided to counteract the wave of public resentment against his family and business interests. He engaged the service of a famous publicity agent named Ivy Lee, who started the experiment of taking the public into confidence and succeeded within a brief period in turning the tide of public opinion in favour of the Rockefeller family and their industry. The Standard Oil Corporation, of which Rockefeller was the controlling head, reshaped its affairs and business policies and systematically placed facts before the public so as to deserve public confidence and approval. Thus, it will be seen that the change was two-fold. The Public Relations began within the Company and the family themselves. They changed their policies and practices so as to bring them in tune with the ideals of the common people. In other words, the Company placed itself in a position to deserve public admiration and at the same time, measures were adopted for a skilful interpretation and presentation of the Company's attitude and transactions in order to make the public familiar with them. Rockefeller was formerly referred to and painted in cartoons in the press in terms of hatred and great resentment throughout the country and was probably characterized as number one devil. "The figure of the striding, ruthless monopolist

in high hat and long coat gripping his walking stick and entering a court house was replaced by pictures of a frail old man, playing golf with his neighbours, handing out dimes to children, distributing inspiration poems and walking in peace amidst his flowers." The methods used by Ivy Lee in bringing about this transformation which converted Rockefeller from one of the most censured individuals to a benevolent patriarch, later became known as the art or science of "Public Relations".

Ivy Lee may therefore be called the Father of Public Relations and was followed by another well-known public relations counsel in America called Edward L. Bernays. Ivy Lee and T. J. Ross started using the word "Public Relations" which Mr. Bernays called "Publicity Direction." In his book "Propaganda—the public mind in the making" (1928) Mr. Bernays emphasizes the fact that business must express itself and its entire corporate existence so that the public will understand and accept it. He gives various instances to illustrate what a sound public relations policy means.

"An oil corporation which truly understands its many-sided relation to the public, will offer that public not only good oil, but a sound labour policy. A bank will seek to show not only that its management is sound and conservative, but also that its officers are honourable both in their public and in their private life. A store specializing in fashionable men's clothing will express in its architecture the authenticity of the goods it offers. A bakery will seek to impress the public with the hygienic care observed in its manufacturing process, not only by wrapping its loaves in dustproof paper, and throwing its factory open to public inspection, but also by the cleanliness and attractiveness of its delivery

wagons. A construction firm will take care that the public knows not only that its buildings are durable and safe, but also that its employees, when injured at work, are compensated. At whatever point a business enterprise impinges on the public consciousness, it must seek to give its public relations the particular character which will conform to the objectives which it is pursuing."

The new aspect of conducting industrial and business undertaking and the close relationship of business interests with public opinion developed considerably after the thirties and by the time of the commencement of the second World War this subject had established its value in the industrial world. After the war the term "Industrial Relations" came into prominence in preference to "Public Relations".

What are Industrial Relations? The answer is simple and straightforward. Industrial Relations are the relations of an industry. Relations postulate more than one party. Who are these parties? On a brief consideration it will be evident that the parties to an industry or a business would be (1) its promoters or the management which supplies the framework of organisation, (2) suppliers of capital (shareholders), (3) suppliers of physical and intellectual labour, (4) suppliers of raw materials, (5) distributing organisations, (6) consumers and (7) the community. The relations of these parties *inter-se* or of the industry towards one or more of these parties constitute "Human Relations in Industry". We have intentionally ignored throughout this article the mechanical or manufacturing aspect of an industry as well as its financial side.

The organisers or promoters co-ordinate the supply of capital, labour and raw ma-

terials, which constitute the primary factors of production. Distributing agency or dealers' organisation is essential for bringing the products near the consumer. Consumers may be either existing or potential. The regular parties to an industry or trading business may seem to end here but it is not correct. No industry or trading business can afford to ignore the vast mass of the public who may not be the consumers of the industry's products or service. The community has a right to the attention of the industry and would exercise its influence through the State legislature, public opinion or other channels. The industry must, therefore, take cognizance of its responsibilities towards the community or the public. The public may be divided into at least three subdivisions, namely, general public, public bodies and the Government. It is necessary to bear in mind the various parties among whom Industrial Relations may exist or have to be developed.

Various definitions have been offered on this subject. Public Relations may mean many things to many people. Some take it as an impressive-sounding name for free publicity, whereas others look upon it as concealed propaganda used for duping the unsuspecting public. It is also understood to mean the presentation of favourable things for the purpose of creating a friendly attitude towards business. It is said that Public Relations aims at creating, shaping and carrying out policies which ultimately fructify in public good-will. In this respect Public Relations is distinct from publicity, the latter term being used to indicate the technique of making the public acquainted with Public Relations policies.

Public Relations is the science (some call it an art) of "cultivating the public mind". It has been recognised that good outside

relations grow from good inside relations. If there is any secret to success in building good Public Relations it lies in the fact that you must begin at home and work from the inside out. It is said that if the immediate family is not happy and informed, those whom it meets on the outside will not be. Good Public Relations within the organisation have therefore been taken to be the starting point and the basis for establishing sound relations with the public. It is like charity—which begins at home but does not end there. It is evident that the various points stressed in these statements emphasize the relations of an industry with the outside world, particularly the general public.

Although a straight attempt at giving the definition of Public Relations was not made during the period which we are reviewing at the moment, the conditions under which large industries were operating during this period were such as to emphasize the need for developing favourable public opinion. This period covers roughly a quarter of a century between the beginning of the first and second World Wars. If we carefully examine the environment of industrial activities during this period in the industrially advanced countries like the United States, U. K. and the continental countries, it is obvious that for various reasons the public opinion was growing against "big business". This led to anti-trust legislation on an increasing scale and a growing resistance to the expansion of industries on the basis of amalgamations, inter-locked directorates, associated or sister companies, and cartels along allied lines. The power generated by industrial magnetism was, it was alleged, abused by the captains of industries and capitalists. Big business, therefore, started to be looked upon as opposed to public welfare or in

other words, anti-social. It is therefore natural that large industrial organisations felt more seriously than ever before the need of building up sound public relations. The emphasis was thus on the industry's relations with the public. This gave rise to various techniques for cultivating public opinion and came to be known as "Public Relations". Generally, people dislike arrogance and are afraid of too much power in others. Monopoly and greatness of size are usually associated with increase in power. Big industries are often powerful and monopoly is usually arrogant. There is also a tendency to suspect things which we do not understand. People are apt to imagine what they do not know to be adverse to their interests. Consequently, "big business" is usually confronted by the public with a "show cause" order why it should be big. It then becomes important for big business to justify its size and to prove successfully that its greatness is in fact conducive to the public interests in service, economy or in other respects. If it can be demonstrated that it is in the community's interest that an industry should be big and monopolistic, public opinion will approve of its existence. This apparently difficult task was most successfully tackled by the Bell Telephone Company which arrived at two important conclusions in 1910. One was that a unified telephone and telegraph system could give the people a most efficient and cheapest service, and secondly, that unless the public were also convinced of that fact, the Company could not hope to succeed. They therefore pursued a policy of supplying correct and full information to the public illustrating the advantages of a unified telephone system. The result was that while America became more anti-monopolist minded, the Bell Telephone Company which was the greatest monopolist Company in America not only

escaped criticism but was unaffected by all anti-trust legislation and the public opinion went so far as to oppose new financiers from entering into this field. The success of the Bell Telephone Company was unique and is a classical example of a model public relations activity adopted even before the term "Public Relations" was coined.

Since the beginning of the second World War and more particularly towards its close, the emphasis shifted from the public to other spheres. A world-wide economic crisis, the problems of rehabilitation and economic recovery plans on an international scale focussed attention on other centres. This gave rise to a comparatively new term "Industrial Relations".

In the present-day world economy, problem of highest priority is maximisation of production. This problem has assumed an acute stage owing to the strained relations between capital and labour brought about by several factors, which it is beyond the sphere of the present article to discuss. Industrial management is therefore faced with the difficulty of securing a proper co-ordination between capital and labour. In the past, problems of production were beset with difficulties relating to the technicalities of manufacture, procurement of raw materials, command of financial resources, costs and other factors. The co-operation of labour was almost taken for granted. The scales have, however, been inversed during the past decade which has brought into prominence the subject of "Industrial Relations."

This prominence is so great and wide that often "Industrial Relations" have been taken to be synonymous with Employer-Employee relations. This could be illustrated in various ways. Recent legislation is

named after "Industrial Relations" in the industrially advanced countries and India, but it deals almost exclusively with employee or labour matters. For instance, the Bombay Industrial Relations Act deals only with employee matters. Government Departments as well as semi-Government or judicial bodies dealing exclusively with subjects relating to personnel employed in industries are called by names associated with "Industrial Relations" as if the two were coincident. This may lead to certain undesirable consequences. The term "Industrial Relations" will be spoken of and understood as meaning only employee relations and lose its wider significance or the whole meaning will be symbolized by reference to one of its components. In the latter case the relations of an industry towards its other components, *viz.*, shareholders, consumers, suppliers, distributors and the community are likely to recede into oblivion.

Some people distinguish between Employer-Employee relations and Employee-Employer relations. According to them the two are distinct. We need not, however, go into this hair-splitting of terms which differentiate without distinction and apparently intend to determine the emphasis on one or the other of the two components. Labour relations seek to deal with problems relating to industrial workers and cover subjects coming within the sphere of various factory acts and allied pieces of legislation. There is no doubt that employee relations and labour relations are "Industrial Relations". What we wish to emphasize is that they are a part and not the whole of the subject of Industrial Relations.

Before we proceed with the consideration of what is covered by Human Relations in Industry, it may be well to discuss and distinguish the field covered by this subject

from other subjects connected with the organisation and conduct of industrial activity.

Success in industrial undertakings results from many factors including organisation, financial resources, technical skill, raw materials, machinery, power, personnel and markets, *etc.* Of these we obviously ignore all except one subject for our present purpose. The relevant subject is "Human Relations in Industry".

Without denying the value of other factors already indicated above for the industrial development of a country, it may be said that "Human Relations in Industry" has assumed a special significance during recent years. It is not necessary to trace the circumstances which have given this subject an unusual importance in the present-day economy of the world. James P. Selva, a reputed public relations counsel in America, recently remarked that industry has entered the 5th period of its growth. The four previous stages were that of the production man, the financier, the era of state regulation and that of the salesman. In the 5th—the present—stage, industrial success will be determined by its Human Relations, in other words, by the relations of an industry towards its employees, shareholders, customers, neighbours surrounding the factory, public and the Government. These are the spheres to which industrial leadership will be required to give the most intense thought in order to maintain or achieve success.

The simplest and one of the most up-to-date definitions of Public Relations is "do good, and let the world know you ARE doing good." In fact this definition applies to all spheres of Industrial Relations. Good Industrial Relations are not the activity of any one individual or department of an

organisation nor can it be practised or promulgated in an isolated condition. It is the operating philosophy of business which runs through the entire organisation right from its managing director to the janitor. It is the spirit or the attitude which an industry exhibits in all its transactions towards everyone with whom it deals or comes in contact. It is said that even the voice of a telephone girl has got an industrial relations aspect, and influences the impression or reaction towards the industry of those who deal or come in contact with it. If the attention paid by the telephone girl to the calls is courteous, prompt and helpful, it will evoke a favourable impression towards the company.

It goes further. It is said that "if the elevation of the company's building is pleasing and fits into the environment or if the building and grounds are kept clean and in good repair, they enhance the reputation of the firm." Not only the employees but even the citizens point to such a firm with pride and a sense of honour. Industry's reputation and prestige are many times affected by the impact of its operations on the life of the community surrounding it. For instance, the industry's operations may affect the employment, health, roads and several other factors of the community's life in the vicinity. We need not go far to seek illustrations of this fact. The effect of advertisements, sign boards, dust, smoke, noise, steam, trade effluents, odour *etc.* on the community's life reflects in its attitude towards the industry. The mode of correspondence, the get-up of letters and letterheads and such minor things go to make all the difference between good and bad business or in other words make or mar the Human Relations in Industry. The manner in which the firm's motor drivers, particularly those driving vehicles marked with the firm's name, perform their duties

also influences public opinion. Strict observance of the "laws of the road" and courtesy towards pedestrians or other vehicular traffic serves to create public esteem towards the company. In this respect it may be recalled how the drivers of military vehicles were dreaded by all road users mostly due to their utter disregard for these factors.

As has already been pointed out earlier, the advocates of Public Relations have showed a definite tendency of using the word "Public Relations" to cover all those activities which are indicated by the term "Industrial Relations" or "Human Relations in Industry". One of the well-known public relations authorities said: "Public Relations has been a part of business relationships. It existed since centuries but it was not until recent years that someone thought of tacking a name on it. Public Relations is an organised activity in which the principal genuinely wants to deserve as well as to win goodwill in his human and business relationships." He adds "Public Relations is good morale and good mannersA large company has not one, but many publics—its employees, shareholders, dealers, customers, suppliers and the vast general public.....the general public none of whom may earn a penny of the company's wages nor spend a penny for its products nor invest any money in its stock have nevertheless an undeniable interest in the way we carry on our business." At this stage Public Relations becomes synonymous with "Industrial Relations". It can also be said on the analysis of the Industrial Relations Departments of large industries that the term "Industrial Relations" is used to indicate the industry's relations with its various components. In this broad sense Industrial Relations represent a genus of which Public Relations is a species. The Industrial Relations Department of an industry

may thus handle many subjects of which Public Relations may be one. The other subjects are known by various names, such as, employee relations, labour relations, customer relations, dealer relations, *etc.* It is obvious that topics covered under Personnel Management are a part of the company's Industrial Relations. Some public relations counsels choose to call Personnel Management and allied subjects as "Internal Public Relations".

We have now seen the various terms commonly used in discussions on this subject and their significance as well as their inter-relationships. To a student of this subject who is not interested in emphasizing or over-emphasizing any special aspect, it would be clear that the different terms are indicative of the special significance or facet which happens to come occasionally into prominence according to the environment and the stage of development of the industry.

Without going into the details of how sound Industrial Relations should be built up we shall now proceed to discuss in general the positive and the negative aspects of this subject. The negative aspect of Industrial Relations consists of what is contra-indicated. If we analyse the definition, namely, "Be good, do good and let the world know you are doing good", it is quite clear that words must be backed by deeds. It is like the substance and its shadow. Though the two may not always coincide, they tend to approach each other and can never be separated. To give another illustration, it may be said that they are like character and reputation. If character is what a man is, reputation is what people think he is. It follows that a bad character cannot have a good reputation for long nor vice-versa. An industry cannot have a good reputation unless it deserves it. For obviously, in business as in

most human affairs what you do is more important than what you say. "It is always possible to make a good statement on a good set of facts, but no more in business than in politics can you fool all the people all the time, and if you expect to stay in business long, an attempt to fool even some of the people some of the time will end in disaster."

In this connection, it may be relevant to refer to certain evils which have unfortunately crept into Indian business particularly since the beginning of the last war. Black marketing, profiteering, "pugree" and various other names under which the art of making money in an unscrupulous and anti-social manner has thrived during and after the war due to absence of competitive conditions caused by various world-wide factors deserve special mention. It can be contended that all businessmen are not black-marketeers, but it is a fact that the existence of the black-market and other anti-social practices followed by unscrupulous businessmen—and we hope that they are in minority—has been conspicuous and has evoked strong public resentment throughout the country. During the past few years, there has also been another complaint about Indian business which has considerably affected the reputation and value of Indian goods in international markets. It is said that our goods do not conform to the sample. The qualities are neither standardised nor consistent. Weights and quantities are often unreliable. In short, the absence of a recognised standard of business morality has done and is doing great harm to the country's business interests. The progressive realisation of this fact by the business interests should lead to the application of the necessary corrective as speedily as possible. While there is no intention to make aspersions against any individual or insti-

tution on this account, as students of this subject we must emphasize that the above malpractices are contra-indicated being highly detrimental to the development of sound Industrial Relations. A high level of business morality, being one of the fundamental requirements, cannot be compromised. Good business motives are essential to good Industrial Relations. There is therefore no place for favouritism, prejudicial and preferential treatment, back-door selling, selling short weight, running out of stock—genuinely or otherwise—showing one sample and supplying another, *etc.* which tend to thrive in the seller's market. A high standard of business morality is the foundation which alone can sustain the superstructure of sound Industrial Relations. Industrial Relations is always a long term investment and will succeed only under long range plans. It is not limited to dealings with customers but also extends to the industry's dealings with employees, shareholders, dealers, suppliers and even with Government and public authorities. A very valuable work in improving business morale and standardising its terms and conditions has been done by commercial associations, chambers and industrial federations in advanced countries and there is a vast scope for similar work here.

Let us now examine the positive side. It is obvious that an edifice of good Industrial Relations cannot be constructed on a foundation of bad business policies or absence of business morality. There is no denying the fact that industry must earn profits. Without profits no industry can thrive or survive for long. But it is now recognised as a basic doctrine of industrial economy that "profit cannot be the sole or dominating motive of an industry." Every industry owes a social obligation and must justify its existence not merely by being

economically sound but by proving its utility and value from the point of public welfare. In this sense Public Relations or Industrial Relations may be said to be a matter of "Industrial Citizenship". Unless an individual is good, he will not earn respect and admiration as a citizen. The same criterion applies to a corporation. "No matter how big it is nor how strong it is it cannot thrive in an atmosphere of indifference or hostility, it cannot be self-sufficient." It must deserve public friendship and must earn its reputation by its deeds. In other words, the primary requirements of good Industrial Relations may be summed up as fairness in its dealings with employees, customers, *etc.* Employees must feel that it is a good company to work for. This is possible only if the primary requirements of Employee Relations are properly and adequately satisfied. Fair remuneration, good working conditions, fair service benefits, rule of law as opposed to free play of discretion, security of employment and similar other matters collectively known as "Personnel Management" ensure the basis of sound Employee-Employer Relations.

In the field of customer relations the primary requisites are fair price, correct weight, standard quality, steady supply and courteous treatment. These are otherwise known as "good business morality". Customers must feel that it is a good company to deal with.

Similar primary requirements must be ensured with respect to the industry's relations in other spheres referred to above. Citizens must feel that it is good concern to invest in and soon.

This is not enough. It is only a first step in the right direction. A superstructure of good Industrial Relations has to be built over these bases by constantly inter-

preting the company's transactions and policies and presenting its actions in proper perspective.

A French proverb says "it is not only essential to love your wife but also to tell her so." This is true also in Industrial Relations. Things which are too obvious are either taken for granted or the people are not conscious of them. It is therefore not sufficient for an industry to conduct itself soundly and efficiently. It must constantly bring these facts to public attention and keep itself continuously before the public. The role of the industrial Relations Manager is two-fold. Firstly, by various means of publicity he keeps all informed of the company's policies and transactions. Secondly, it is his duty to read the public mind and feel the pulse of the various constituents, and to communicate to the management the reactions and views of the different publics. The management has to shape its policies appropriately so as to deserve the approval and admiration of the parties whose relations are of value to the industry.

People are seldom conscious of things which are too obvious. A motorist riding along the road sees petrol pumps at regular intervals. He takes them for granted just as a pedestrian takes for granted the letter-boxes in a big city like Bombay. Both of them seldom think of the organisation that is required to put these things in their place and to keep them working efficiently. It is quite useless to adopt the attitude that people should notice these things which are so apparent. To adopt this view is to start with what people ought to think instead of commencing our investigation with what people do in fact think.

Different media of human communication are used by modern industries for conveying their message to employees, consumers, in-

vestors and other publics. Even the manner of presenting the balance sheets is undergoing a change. The subject of "Human Relations in Industry" is being closely studied by talented persons who are taking the aid of sciences in planning their programmes and perfecting the technique of this new subject.

NEW HORIZONS IN CHILD-CARE

D. V. KULKARNI

In this article, the author discusses the Bombay Children's Act, 1948, which is an improvement on the legislation of 1924, for it has taken into account the changing thought in the field of welfare of socially handicapped children. As in Western countries, so also in India, the author believes one should have the placement of children in foster families and the organisation of voluntary homes. "...family life is more congenial to the proper development of children. Naturally, therefore, if dependent and neglected children are to grow normally they should be cared for in a surrounding which will be as much like a family as possible, so that if not real parents, at least substitute parents can look after the child, and enable him to grow emotionally in a secure manner, or to have as much individualised attention as is necessary."

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The Bombay Children's Act of 1924 has been revised and a legislation called the Bombay Children's Act, 1948, has been enacted recently. This new Act did not get the wide publicity which it rightly deserved, in the Press as well as in any of the journals devoted to Social Welfare, though this Act is of primary importance so far as the Social Legislation of the Province of Bombay is concerned. There are certain Provincial Legislatures in India which have incorporated the Bombay Children's Act more or less completely in their legislative framework which bears testimony to the importance of this Act. It was necessary, therefore, that the provisions of the Act should have been discussed more widely. It is proposed to elucidate briefly in this article certain new concepts introduced in the new Act.

Some Improvements.—Time and again the conferences of workers specialised in the field of socially handicapped children held under the auspices of the Juvenile Branch, brought to the notice of Government certain difficulties in the actual administration of the Act. In addition to this, the Act was not sufficiently in keeping with the philosophy behind the legislation. For example, the Bombay Children's Act of 1924, had in its preamble the expression:—"An Act to make further provision for

the custody and protection of children and for the custody, trial and *punishment* of youthful offenders, *etc.*," while the new Act, with due regard to the spirit of the Act which is not punitive, has its preamble which runs as follows:—"An Act to consolidate and amend the law for the custody, protection, *treatment and rehabilitation* of children and youthful offenders and for the trial of youthful offenders in the Province of Bombay, *etc.*"

It may be noted that the *treatment and rehabilitation* aspect is singularized while the absence of the mention of punishment which was in the Bombay Children's Act, 1924, indicates that the newly consolidated and amended Bombay Children's Act of 1948 is a further step as far as the spirit behind the Legislation is concerned.

There were thus many such gaps in the old Act which required urgent attention of Government. The wording of the Act in some sections was faulty and ambiguous. The arrangement of the Act was not sequential and some sections presented loop-holes with the result that many unscrupulous people could evade the law and exploit the children to their own advantage.

Government, finally, appointed a small Departmental Committee in July, 1945, under the Presidentship of the then Chief Inspector

of Certified Schools, T. E. Streatfield of the Indian Civil Service, and the then Inspector of Certified Schools was appointed as the Secretary of the Committee. The Chief Presidency Magistrate, Mr. Oscar H. Brown, Miss M. K. Davis, a pioneer worker in the field of child welfare of this type, and Dr. (Miss) K. H. Cama, M. A., M. Sc., Ph.D. (Michigan), were appointed as members of this Departmental Committee. This Committee after due consideration, suggested to Government the consolidatory amendments and on the basis of their recommendations, the Legislature passed the new Act which formed Bombay Legislative Assembly, Bill No. LVIII of 1948. The Bombay Government Gazette while quoting "some of the salient improvements introduced into the Bill" enumerates them as follows:—

Part II

"Clauses 9-13-These make it clear that all juvenile offenders must be tried in Juvenile Courts in the area and not in adult Courts, and that there should be no joint trial of a child and adult in areas where Juvenile Courts exist, *etc.*"

"Clause 14-This restricts the appearance of legal practitioners before Juvenile Courts except in cases where such appearance is necessary in public interest."

"Clause 20 (2)-This and Clause 99 provide for dealing with children suffering from Leprosy or are of unsound mind."

"Clause 24-The provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, are made applicable by this to trials and proceedings under the Act except as expressly provided otherwise."

Part V

"Clause 47-This provides that uncontrollable children may, in addition to Certi-

fied Schools, be committed to fit person institutions or to the care of a guardian or a relative."

Part VI

"Clause 59-Provision to prevent the exploitation of children is made."

"Clause 63-This makes offences against children cognisable."

Part VII

"Clause 64-This restricts bailing out of children to safe cases only."

"Clause 68-At present Courts are empowered under Section 22 of the existing Act to commit dangerous children over 14 to Jail. This clause, however, leaves it to Government to pass final orders in such cases."

"Clause 73-This and clause 84 provide for the repatriation of children to their Province of origin."

Part XI

"Clauses 106 and 107-These lay down that Probation Officers, *etc.*, acting under the provisions of the Act shall be deemed as public servants and that no suit, *etc.*, shall be instituted against them for anything done by them in good faith."

(*The Bombay Government Gazette*—Thursday, 9th September, 1948, page 422.)

Some of the provisions of the Act mark a radical departure from the established legal routine, for example, Section 14 of the Act, mention of which is already made, lays down that:—

"Notwithstanding anything contained in any law for the time being in force, a legal practitioner shall not be entitled to appear in any case or proceeding before a Juvenile Court, unless the Juvenile Court

is of opinion that in public interest the appearance of a legal practitioner is necessary in such cases or proceedings and authorizes, for reasons to be recorded in writing, a legal practitioner to appear in such case or proceeding."

It is clear, therefore, that the new Act is decidedly an improvement on its prototype and has taken into account the changing thought in the field of welfare of socially handicapped children, and in its departure from the punitive phraseology and outlook which was present to some extent in the original Act.

Some New Horizons of Work.—However, there are certain other aspects of the Act which have not been adequately appreciated, and to a welfare worker, particularly in this field, it is of utmost importance to take them into account. A casual study of the methods of "treatment and rehabilitation" of children in some of the western countries shows that there is a definite trend of not using the institutional set-up and there is a growing tendency to utilize the family setting for the purposes of rehabilitation of socially handicapped children. The work of Anna Freud among the children who were subjected to the air-raid precautionary measures in England, has clearly proved that a child is much happier and emotionally more secure with his parents, and children who are deprived of the family life develop peculiar types of neurosis. In other words, family life is more congenial to the proper emotional development of children. Naturally, therefore, if dependent and neglected children are to grow normally, they should be cared for in a surrounding which will be as much like a family as possible, so that if not real parents, at least substitute parents can look after the child,

and enable him to grow emotionally in a secure manner, or to have as much individualised attention as is really necessary. In the United States also the same broad trend is evident and the specialised application of case work and group work techniques has given a remarkable impetus to the family placement of children in need of protection and rehabilitation. In the same manner there appears to be a growing interest in the adoption of destitute or unwanted children. Not only that, but a good number of the unaccompanied children from the war-devastated lands brought to the U. S. A. have been accepted in American Homes in both these manners.

It is a fact that sometimes especially in the U. S. A., due to divergent practices in various States, the adoption laws are misused by interested parties. But it is true that the adoptions and foster family placements are used in preference to the age-long and traditional institutional care. The first White House Conference on the care of Dependent Children, held in 1909, resolved that "Home life is the highest and finest product of civilization. Children should not be deprived of it except for urgent and compelling reasons."¹

Even the institutions which apprehended their disappearance from the field, had to adopt individualized treatment and less regimentation in their programmes, just with a view to being at par with the family placement and adoption methods in the area of child care.

The various State Governments under the joint State-Federal Aid to Dependent Children programme have been financing the foster placements, and the Beveridge Plan in Great Britain looks after the maintenance of needy children.

¹ Proceedings of the White House Conference on Care of Dependent Children, 1909, p. 5.

Boarding Charges.—Those who are connected with the social investigation work at the Juvenile Courts are very familiar with the causes as to why the children including youthful offenders appear in Juvenile Courts. Almost all the cases, though no correct statistics are available on this point, are from a parentage of a very poor economic level. Though there is no express arrangement in any of the legislations in India by which a poverty condition can be defined, and though there is no explicit provision corresponding to the Aid to Dependent Children or A. D. C. programme in the United States, still, especially the Government of Bombay, has been helping children committed to the institutions generously. A brief analysis of the grants will show the extent of help given.

Statement of expenditure of Certified Schools during 1947-48.

Name of School	Inmates.	Expenditure. Rs.
Yeravda Industrial School	385	1,86,000
Sholapur Certified School	167	26,000
Hubli Certified School	154	24,000
Jambul Certified School	70	31,000
Sirur Certified School	40	16,000
<i>Children's Aid Society.</i>		
David Sassoon Industrial School	402	1,50,000
Chembur Children's Home	319	.
Mentally Deficient Children's Home, Bombay	43	3,62,000
Umarkhadi Remand Home.	576	
Amount of capitation grant paid to private Certified Schools and to "Fit Person" institutions.		1,57,000
Remand charges paid on account of children kept on remand in the Bombay Province during 1948-49.		1,21,000

The Bombay Government has also been giving Rs. 18/- a month to the children

committed to "Fit Person" institutions in the mofussil and Rs. 20/- a month in Bombay. The statement of expenditure will show that Government has been paying Rs. 30/- a month for children in institutions and any cheaper yet efficient way of child care should be a welcome step. We may safely say, therefore, that a good portion of the Government grant spent on "fit person" institutions is really spent on children in economic need.

Even in the Western countries the problem of poverty is not absent. And in some form or other provision has been made by the State for such needy children. "The Beveridge Report breaks with the tradition by proposing an allowance for all children except the first in any family, regardless of the parent's income. Where the family breadwinner is unemployed or otherwise entitled to benefit, the first child is also entitled to an allowance. The proposed allowance per child is fairly generous, an average of eight Shillings or \$ 1.60 graduated according to age."²

This gives us an idea that the Beveridge Plan allows Rs. 21/- a month in Great Britain and this is supposed to cover the dependency state. In regard to the rates of payment in the U. S. A.,—"Rates of Board, which in pre-war years ranged from \$ 20 to \$ 30 monthly, now usually range from \$ 35 to \$ 45. Where there is compensation for the foster mothers' services the amounts range from about \$ 50 to \$ 70 a month, the amount per child being even more when it is a subsidized home. Board rates charged by independent foster homes are known to have been as high as \$ 125 per month."³

² Stewart, Maxwell S., "The Beveridge Plans," *Public Affairs Pamphlet*, New York, 1945, p. 15.

³ *Social Work Year Book*, 1947, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1947, p. 1976.

Foster Placement in Indian Conditions.—Have we any prospects of developing this mode of child care in India on an extensive and approved scale? This is the next question we have to answer and it is really difficult to do so. There are a number of difficulties.

First of all, Indian public opinion is not enlightened enough to accept a child whose antecedents are not known, or who comes from a different caste or who is born out of wedlock. Indian public opinion is chary to accept such children in the family set-up, and if at all such a method has to succeed there is an urgent need to build up strong public opinion in favour of this mode of child care. The barriers of caste system are dwindling down and the pattern of traditional joint family is also disappearing. More and more secular outlook in the daily walks of life is replacing the dogmatic adherence to the hard-set social customs and it should not be difficult to popularize the foster family placement if a conscientious effort is made.

Secondly, a poverty stricken average Indian cannot afford to offer his services as a foster parent, especially where the whole of the burden of the upkeep of the child has to be borne by him. No doubt, there are many persons who would like to have their own children and failing that they would want foster children, provided they are free from any religious or sentimental bias. But it is impossible for those persons who are not financially above want to render a helping hand to needy children and to satisfy their parental urge to have a child.

Thirdly, there are other reasons which fall in the wider aspects of social consciousness. Perhaps due to the overwhelming population, human life has not received the same care in India in modern times and as such, people do not feel that they owe a social

obligation to their fellow citizens—poor children—who need help and protection. If, however, this sadly lacking quality in our national life is developing in the coming generations, it may be easy to rehabilitate in family surroundings the parentless, destitute and needy children.

Nevertheless, as far as Bombay Province is concerned, it is obvious from the reports on the working of the Juvenile Courts that there are occasions when the Courts resort to this method of disposing of the cases. The author of this article knows from his personal experience of the Juvenile Courts that often clients apply to the Court to give them a chance to rear up children. The same is the case in many of the children's institutions. Occasionally there are applications requesting the authorities of such institutions to allow them to have a child from the institution so that it can be looked after in their families. Even though, viewing the bulk of cases in Juvenile Courts or the pupils in children's institutions, such requests are occasional, yet, it indicates that there are immense potentialities to tap these resources. The Poona District Probation and After-Care Association reports that during the year ending 31st March, 1949, in all there were 683 cases before the Poona Juvenile Court and as many as 535 cases were disposed of and out of these only 6 children were committed to "fit persons". In 1948-49 the total number of cases before the Juvenile Court at Poona was 789 and only 4 cases were committed to "fit persons". A typical case quoted from the Fourteenth Annual Report (1947-48) of the District Probation and after-Care Association will clarify the need for extending the use of this mode of child care.

"S, a one-day old baby was produced before the Juvenile Court, Poona, by the

Jejuri Police. The Police Sub-Inspector, Jejuri, reported that the baby was found alone by the side of a rock. Her head was bruised a little and there were red ants biting her face. The baby was taken charge of and was committed to the Babies Home of the x x x Hospital x x x for six years. When the baby was one year old, an application from a wealthy grocer was received, requesting the Court to give him a baby in adoption. Enquiries were made about the applicant by the Probation Officer, and it was found out that the grocer had a landed property worth Rs. 20,000/-. This man was married sixteen years back, and his wife had given birth to two male issues. But unfortunately neither of them survived and the lady was yearning for a baby. So the baby was committed to the care of the grocer on a fit person individual basis for one year in the first instance, under the supervision of a Probation Officer. The report shows that the baby has become robust and cheerful and the foster parents are pouring out all their love and riches on the baby."

Probation Officer Vs. Case Worker.—

This case will illustrate that there are good grounds to believe that children even in our country could be cared for in a more natural manner if they are sent to suitable families, and in the interest of scientific social work for children, there should be a growing use of this method.

In the case illustration which is just quoted it is observed that the Court has made use of the services of a Probation Officer. Probation, as a matter of fact, is a synonym for suspended sentence, while keeping a baby in a foster family is not a sentence. It is a specialized method of treatment and is to be administered by a trained case worker. It is high time that the child-caring institutions should entertain such

case-work services under the guidance of properly trained case workers and case work supervisors. And the work of a Probation Officer who is also essentially a case worker with specialized background in the field of delinquency, crime and correctional administration is differentiated from that of a case worker in the field of foster placement and adoption.

It is also quite necessary to lay down suitable standards for foster homes and arrangements should be made to evaluate these homes objectively and study them individually with a view to considering individual cases in relation to individual families.

Last but not least, a case worker should be trained to have greater appreciation and insight into the dynamics of adjustment of individual children in the fosterplacement. There should be proper instructions in the Rules framed under the Children's Act, in respect of finding foster homes. If all such broad suggestions are given effect, it is probable that the quality of our present and very occasional family placement may improve. At present it appears that all these details are lacking in the field of child welfare in India and that is why a deeper analysis of work is necessary. It will be a contribution to the work of the Juvenile Court if they differentiate Probation Officers, Case Workers, After-Care Workers and Parole Officers from each other and establish specialised services in their Courts.

*Foster Home Concept.—*Though the Bombay Children's Act enacted in 1948 is not a perfect piece of legislation, it is considerably advanced in so far as it has incorporated some of the concepts of foster family placement and adoption. Under the Bombay Children's Act, 1948, a fit person

is defined:—"Fit Person" includes a fit person institution which in relation to the care of any child means any Association or body of individuals, *etc.*" This is an *inclusive definition* and as such a Juvenile Court is within its jurisdiction to order a child to be placed in a family and there should be no difficulty in sending such of those socially handicapped children who are in need of a family treatment and who with due regard to their physical, mental and social development are likely to profit in a normal family, to institutions and certified schools.

At present certain Juvenile Courts commit children very occasionally to "fit person individuals"—as they call them. But if at all a really scientific child care service is to be organised the idea of "commitment" should be replaced by "foster family placement". The process must not involve any punitive aspect and the oft-resorted method of taking a bond from the foster parent for good behaviour of the child should be eliminated. There should be no difficulty in suitably subsidizing the deserving "fit person" individuals upto the maximum of the charges allowed by Government for the care and upkeep of such children from time to time. The fit person clause is permissive enough and it is a matter of popularising the concept among the public and enlightening the mind of the Juvenile Court Magistracy together with proper organisation of non-official child care resources with a view to consolidating, reorganising and revitalising the existing rudimentary case work services rendered possible through the "Probation Officers."

Voluntary Homes.—The Bombay Children's Act, 1948, also provides for "Voluntary Homes" which is defined as "a place for the reception of children maintained wholly or partly by voluntary contributions."

This is another possibility of child care. Every one conversant with the modern trends in child care is aware of the greater needs of individualization. The days of big institutions with mass programmes are gone and there is a growing need of small units preferably of family size where children could be cared for individually. The incorporation of voluntary homes as one of the new methods of child care needs to be made popular. These methods need interpretation to the public.

It is reasonable to expect that at least some people will come forward to run voluntary homes if properly encouraged to do so. Not only that but the Juvenile Court could maintain a list of such homes which could be approved after proper scrutiny and licensed for the purpose. The case workers attached to the Juvenile Courts could study the homes frequently and exert a check up on these homes so that the possibilities of misuse are eliminated.

If these and such new methods are introduced in the field of child care, then alone it is possible to cope with the growing pressure on the existing institutional accommodation which incidentally is very limited. Secondly, this will also give an impetus to the people to participate in a greater degree in the existing social services which especially in this branch are mainly subsidised by the State.

It is worth while, therefore, that the District Probation and After-Care Associations in the Province as well as the Bombay Province Probation and After-Care Association which constitutes the federal body and under whose guidance the work of the District Probation and After-Care Associations is organised, take up this issue of popularizing these two new concepts of child care *viz.* placement of children in

families and organising of voluntary homes and also of organising the machinery for study, evolution, placement, adjustment and rehabilitation of the socially handicapped children. It would also be in the fitness of things if this particular phase of work, if this particular activity, is included in the aims and objects of such Associations.

Side by side, it is quite necessary that the Juvenile Courts also give an impetus to such programmes with a view to specialising the technique of Court procedure as far as the administration of the Children's Act is concerned.

It appears that there is a great need of such services at this stage and time is quite opportune for it, when the problem of displaced children is engaging public attention.

To sum up:—

- (1) The Bombay Children's Act, 1948, which is an improvement on the

legislation of 1924 has incorporated the principles of

- (i) foster home care and to some extent also of adoption and
 - (ii) of voluntary homes.
- (2) There are good potentialities in the country as is shown by experience to develop these concepts.
 - (3) For this it is necessary to specialize and reclassify the personnel.
 - (4) The standards and procedures for evaluation, placement or adjustment of children should also be worked out.
 - (5) The Social welfare agencies engaged in child welfare work as well as the Juvenile Courts should apply their mind to these important avenues of child rehabilitation which is one of the foremost social problems in the country.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK IN LATIN AMERICA

ROBERT C. JONES

The article traces the history of Social Work Education in Latin America during the last twenty-five years, and deplores the lack of recognition of social work as a fully developed profession. The author's suggestions regarding the development of the schools of social work and the improvement of their standards, will be valuable to all interested in such institutions in any part of the world.

Robert C. Jones was born in Latin America, and is an indefatigable social worker, having personal acquaintance with social work leaders in all the countries of America and having made a study of social work in all parts of the world. Mr. Jones is at present Acting Chief, Division of Labour and Social Information, Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C.

There has been a great expansion of the social services in Latin America in recent years. At the same time an increasing recognition has developed of the complexity and interrelatedness of all aspects of social and economic life and of the necessity that social welfare agencies take those factors into account. Both, the size of the social programs which are developing and the seriousness of the problems which they must meet, make it important that adequate professional training be provided to those who are to be responsible for social betterment and care. Since schools of social work are among the institutions which have assumed responsibility for the preparation of such personnel, adequate attention should be given to their development and efforts made to help them improve their standards.

The first school of social work in Latin America was established in Santiago, Chile, at the end of 1924 and was opened early in 1925. By the end of 1940 a total of twenty-one institutions were devoted to the training of professional social workers. Approximately thirty new schools have been founded since that time with at least one in every country, except five—Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Of the fifty-one schools in operation at the beginning of 1948, more than half were in the three southernmost

republics eleven in Argentina, fifteen in Brazil and seven in Chile. Three were in Colombia, two each in Ecuador and Venezuela and one in each of the other South American countries—Uruguay, Paraguay, Bolivia and Peru. There are two in Central America with one each in Panama and Costa Rica. Mexico had four schools and Cuba one. The number of schools which have been abandoned after being opened has been extremely limited, not numbering more than four or five and all of these except one or two have been reorganised and continued under different auspices.

In attempting to formulate some generalizations regarding social work education in Latin America, the individuality of each school should not be forgotten. Considerable diversity exists and requirements for admission and graduation vary widely. More detailed study of these institutions would more clearly reveal the factors which differentiate them. It appears certain that as their work becomes better known their importance will be seen to be much greater than is usually recognised. These centres of learning are coming to possess an increasing amount of influence and their graduates are making an important contribution to the improvement of the social services.

As early as 1924, the First International Conference on Social Economy held in Buenos Aires gave recognition to the need for trained practitioners in the social field by recommending that social work or "applied sociology" be given a professional status equal to that of medicine, law and engineering and suggesting that universities establish schools to train personnel in that field. The Third Pan-American Scientific Congress which met in Lima, Peru, later that same year adopted a similar resolution. The Fifth and Sixth Pan-American Child Congresses held in Habana and in Lima in 1927 and 1930 respectively, recommended the establishment of professional schools of social work, particularly as an integral part of existing universities. The Seventh American Scientific Congress held in Mexico in 1935 urged the founding of institutions which would train social workers.

During the close of the twenty-five years, which have passed since the first school of social work was established in Latin America, continuous efforts have been made to raise the standards up to at least those of the older professional schools. Although no centralized agency has been created which could evaluate and accredit their programs, the First Pan-American Congress of Social Services held in Santiago de Chile in September, 1945, agreed on the necessity of drawing up minimum bases for the operation of the schools in order to maintain the necessary standards.

Over half of the schools have been founded as independent institutions, quite frequently under the auspices of some religious society or philanthropic organization, but most of them have received governmental subsidy in one form or another. An increasing number are becoming affiliated with larger educational institutions or are being founded as an integral part of

established universities but as far as it is known, no school of social work has as yet been established in Latin America which has full university status, although there is a definite trend in that direction. A number form part of law faculty, a school of medicine or law or a department of social science. This usually means that the older, larger and better established curriculum strongly influences what is taught in the social work courses. This situation, in general, reflects the lack of recognition of social work as a fully developed profession. The type of courses offered are developing greater uniformity, following certain major patterns, but much more detailed information is needed about their content for useful comparisons to be made.

Schools of social work, as is the case with other professional schools in Latin America, usually admit students directly from preparatory or secondary schools. Sometimes their requirements are even lower. The course of study, however, is in all cases at least in part technical and professional in character.

Although the various special fields which have developed in social work such as administration, case work, community organization, group work and research are quite generally known, efforts have usually been directed in Latin America toward developing a broad synthesis of these specializations rather than towards giving differentiated instruction in each area. Inter-professional co-operation and the creation of more vital relationship between social scientists and social practitioners have been encouraged in part by the pressing nature of social needs and the general scarcity of technically trained personnel. Studies conducted by social scientists have usually been closely related to action programs. Social work training has also been found to be of value

to nutritionists, public health officers, labour inspectors, librarians and visiting teachers, and efforts have been made to make such instruction available to them, either in the schools of social work or in their own training centers through extension courses or special lectures.

Upto the present time the formal part of the education programs developed in the schools of social work in Latin America has to a large extent followed traditional patterns of social work training developed in the United States and in Europe. The character of the training given has been, however, also influenced by the interests and views of those founding, sponsoring or directing the schools and by the kind of skills thought to be demanded by the services which social workers are called upon to perform. In a few cases a genuine effort has been made to plan rationally a curriculum which will prepare workers to understand and help solve the most serious social problems. Studies of communities and analytical observation of agencies at work within them have been encouraged for the purpose of improving the administration of services and to adapt them more adequately to actual needs. Statistical research has also been given some importance and in a few cases effective co-operative relationships have been established between the schools and such agencies as the national statistical or census bureaus.

In most cases the presentation of a thesis is required as one of the requisites for graduation. These surveys or investigations although, in general, rather elementary in character, represent an important source of information and constitute a valuable contribution to social work literature. A number of the schools sponsor reviews which publish such studies and help meet the

great need for social work literature which is adapted to local requirements.

The development of student social work practice has been recognized as imperative, but although some experimentation has been carried out in this field, it is generally recognized that this aspect of training is still underdeveloped and comparatively little has been done as yet to perfect or standardize it.

In practically all the Latin American countries there has been a great demand for the graduates of the schools of social work in a wide variety of fields. A considerable number of the alumni have, for example, been employed in the social insurance systems and in connection with health and nutrition programs. Lack of additional opportunities for the masses in certain areas increases the importance of the social worker as a source of a great variety of important practical information such as the basic principles of nutrition, hygiene and co-operative living. The practical arts are consequently given considerable importance in some of the schools. A detailed study of the placement and employment experience of trained social workers is needed so that more exact information could be made available in this respect.

In addition to the attention which has been given in the schools to improve the technical aspects of social work, considerable thought has been given to what the objectives of social work should be and how social work training might meet those ends. The imperative necessity of improving the economic and social situation of the masses and the importance of eliminating undesirable living conditions rather than merely ameliorating them has been recognized and the possible function of social work in the process of improving standards of living has been seriously examined.

Study of the principles of social justice has been given prominence in some of the schools so that the students might interest themselves in social reform. It has been considered that the schools of social work have a responsibility to help prepare leaders who are capable of bringing about social improvements and of planning and initiating new programs in a wide range of fields.

In 1924 Dr. Rene Sand, the Belgian pioneer in the development of international co-operation in the social service field, in a talk¹ on "International Co-operation for Social Welfare" mentioned the Pan American Union's past contributions in the field of social work and predicted that it would expand its activities in the future. Such developments have been slow in taking place but at the Eighth International Conference of American States held in Lima, Peru, in 1938, it was recommended that a central informational and co-ordinating agency be established for the purpose of promoting co-operation between the schools of social service of the various countries and assisting in the organization of Pan American conferences and congresses and it was suggested that the Pan American Union study the possibility of establishing such a program.

After the creation of the Division of Labour and Social Information in 1940, definite steps were taken to carry out this suggestion. A study of the programs of the schools of social work in Latin America was initiated and a preliminary report was published in 1943.² Additional information has continued to be collected since then. A questionnaire was sent to all of the schools and further systematic study is

planned. It was further suggested at the First Pan American Congress of Social Service held in Santiago, Chile, in 1945, that the schools regularly send information regarding their activities to the Pan American Union and they have been co-operating in this respect. It is expected that a greatly enlarged and up-to-date account of social work training in Latin America can be issued before the Second Pan American Congress of Social Service scheduled to be held in Rio de Janeiro in 1949.

The Division has stimulated and encouraged co-operation between local, regional, national and international organizations operating in the field of social work education, co-ordinating their activities and promoting the pooling of resources. The existence of certain problems which can be faced in common to good advantage has also been indicated. It has aided in the distribution and interchange of literature and personnel and has carried on an extensive correspondence with those in charge of the schools. The bulletin *Noticias* has been carrying an increasing amount of social service news from the various countries and has been distributed to all of the schools. It is hoped that it will eventually be possible to issue a technical social work bulletin in both English and Spanish.

It is desirable that this consultative and co-ordinating work be enlarged and expanded. Frequent visit to the various countries would greatly increase the value of the service rendered, as had been demonstrated in the cases where field trips have been possible. The distribution, exchange

¹ Fifty-first Annual Session of the National Conference of Social Work, Toronto, Canada.

² Jones, Robert C., "Schools of Social Work in Latin America," Washington, Pan American Union, 1943.

and development of literature which up to the present time has been conducted on an informal basis could also be better organized and expanded to advantage.

In many circles social work has been thought of as being largely a woman's profession. Since it has been traditional for professional schools in Latin America to admit only one sex, a large number of the schools of social work have only been open to women. This has had a limiting effect upon the development of the field. Although an increasing member of men are now entering this vocation, salaries are not yet such as to attract very many. The large number of part time students and of persons who do not complete the whole course of training has also limited development.

As is the case with other professional schools, the schools of social work in Latin America are for the most part located in the larger urban centers. A majority of the students also come from cities although a greater number are being encouraged to come from outlying regions and it is being increasingly recognized that greater attention should be given to the social needs of rural and other isolated communities. Special scholarship funds are being established for the benefit of students from such areas.

Associations of schools of social work have been organized in several countries. Up to the present time they have been rather informal in character, possessing little or no evaluative or accredited functions. They do, however, facilitate the exchange and comparison of experience and ideas in the

field of social work education. An informal inter-American committee of schools of social work has been in existence but it has not been very active. Representation in the International Association of Schools of Social Work has been somewhat erratic. The alumni and former students of a number of schools have organized active groups which, in addition to giving their support to their alma mater, have established educational programs of a post-graduate character which serve to keep practitioners informed about the latest developments in the field and give them opportunity to jointly discuss certain professional problems.

Since the Latin American countries traditionally looked to Europe for educational leadership, it was natural that the experts called to help establish the first schools of social work should be from there and that the first Latin American students to go abroad to study social work should also go to Europe. Contacts with the United States were about as early³ but they were more sporadic until about the beginning of World War II. A comparison of the two currents of influence, however, will be left for another occasion. As the value of international cooperation in this field is increasingly recognized, both social work students and faculty are being exchanged between various American countries. Many problems relating to social work education are common to all countries and it has been found that each has something to contribute from its experience to the others, the least advanced having something to contribute as well as the more developed when genuine exchange takes places.

³ The writer spent the major part of the year 1925-1926 in Habana, Cuba, bringing the social work literature being produced in various countries to the attention of interested leaders but lack of adequate support for this program made it impossible to continue it except on an intermittent basis during the subsequent years.

HUTS AND HOUSES IN THE TROPICS

JACOB L. CRANE

This article is a paper prepared for discussions of tropical housing, and contains important information for all those governments interested in improving the housing standard of their people.

To provide decent houses for the 200,000,000 families who live in tropical huts is indeed a formidable task, but the solution lies in having an "aided-self-help" program.

Mr. Jacob L. Crane, Office of the Administrator, Housing and Home Finance Agency of the U. S. A., Washington.

In the tropical and semi-tropical regions of the world about 1,000,000,000 people make their homes. These 1,000,000,000, men, women and children make up something in the order of 200,000,000 families. A very small proportion of these families live in good *houses*. All the others live in *huts* of one type or another.

The literature of the temperate zones is full of romantic ideas about the thatched hut of the tropics. Although the war in Asia, the Middle East and Africa dispelled part of the illusion for Europeans and Americans, the legend of languorous living in palm shaded shelters persists in Northern minds. For, judged by more humane, if more prosaic standards, the tropical hut is not very good to live in.

To be sure, it has good points. It has evolved in various forms out of thousands of years of tradition and trial-and-error. The earthen wall, in many variations, is relatively cool. The thatched roof constitutes in effect a porous awning which cuts off the sun and rain but permits the air to move through. Most important, the tropical hut can be and is *built mainly by the family itself*, with local materials which cost nothing but the work of gathering them. These are great virtues; and they suggest principles for any sensible program of improvement in the housing of tropical people.

But a closer look reveals some reasons why those who can afford houses do not live in huts as they find them in the tropics. Most tropical huts and settlements lack even elementary sanitation. Often the huts are crowded much too closely on the land. The earth floor is dirty at best. The walls and roofs are verminous. Smoke fills the space inside. And that space is too small,—much too small for health or comfort. The homes of most tropical families are substandard. I mean substandard by any reasonable appraisal.

As with other elements of human progress, skeptics will say that these families are content to live the way they do and that they should continue to live that way. This is not true. Once convinced that better homes are available without damage to them in other respects, nearly all families who live in huts (or slums) anywhere will jump at the chance.

I have seen some families in semi-tropical South China who felt that their self-built huts were better for their family living than the very narrow new municipal houses. I have seen families in Ceylon who did not want to move from their own little shelters into the "company" housing because they feared eviction in bad times. I have seen families in South America who preferred their squatters huts to the new houses which involved an obligation to pay rent

in cash. I remember one old couple who did not want to move anyway, and who said the important things were their tea, their mutton, and good conversation; and they could bathe outdoors when it rained.

But all of this is not relevant to the real problem. As part of the wide popular demand for better living conditions, a great movement to improve tropical housing is beginning to take shape. Accordingly, many governments and many individuals and organizations all over the tropical world are trying to discover formulae by which the mass of their people can lift themselves from this stage of primitive, unhealthy living.

Here I must apologize to the 200,000,000 families who live in tropical huts. Of course, their points of view have greater validity than mine, since I am only an outsider and a student of these problems. However, I have a proposition to make. It is addressed particularly to the governments and the popular leaders who are concerned about tropical housing. The proposition derives from many years of intermittent observation and work in the field of tropical housing. I have no choice but to report on these things as I see them; in terms which I understand; and as specifically as I am able.

Further, since all of the economic relationships vary widely in different tropical regions, I shall have to simplify by using figures which illustrate the case, rather than to present comprehensive statistics. For convenience, if I may be permitted, I shall outline some computations in terms of dollars. Otherwise, I would not know whether to use rupees, or pesos, or gourds, or any one of fifty other monetary units. (Incidentally, what has become of the proposals for a single, world-wide monetary system? Such a system would help us all to understand and to deal with many problems of

the world community, including housing.)

The Cost of Building Houses.—When officials undertake to estimate the cost of building decent housing,—the cost, say, of substituting even minimum sanitary houses for insanitary tropical huts, they are likely to base their estimates on the use of commercial materials and the employment of “contractors” for construction. In other words, they may assume, and many do, that the new houses will be provided by the labor and skill of *others than the people who will live in the houses*. This is the modern method of construction, widely used in all highly organized societies.

A design is prepared. A site is selected. An arrangement is made with a construction organization. That organization, the Contractor, secures the materials and equipment and brings in the construction workers. Then, after construction, the family moves in, and undertakes to pay for having the house built for them *by others than themselves*.

Of course, there are many variations and modifications of this process. But it constitutes one end of the spectrum, and, for most tropical housing, it costs too much. Let us take a look at this cost from several points of view.

First, the family point of view: The cash incomes of families in tropical areas may be represented by the figure of one hundred dollars per year, with no visible resources by means of which this income can be measurably increased any time. Many tropical families earn the local equivalent of more than this; many earn less. We have no reliable average or median figure; but the one-hundred-dollar figure may be taken as typical of at least some tropical situations.

In that kind of situation it is likely that the *minimum* house and utilities built by a

"contractor" would cost at least one thousand dollars. I shall not argue the matter of standards here. The reader can be assured that, in such a region, a new tropical house for a family of five, designed to meet even the most minimum responsible standards, and built by contract, will cost nowadays at least one thousand dollars. But the families rarely possess the local equivalent of one thousand dollars to pay out in cash for a house. Further, under present circumstances the prospect of accumulating that much for the purpose is usually very slim, even over a long period of years.

If the family were permitted to pay off the thousand dollars in say, twenty years, this would have serious disadvantages for them. Even at low rates of interest, the payments would demand too large a portion of the family income; and the debt would burden them with an obligation which, in most tropical societies as now organized, they would feel to be a millstone around their necks.

Second, from the point of view of the government: Let us take the hypothetical case of a small, sovereign tropical nation, which is trying to formulate a practicable housing program for its people. Three-fourths of the population, perhaps 600,000 families, now live in totally insanitary huts. New sanitary houses of absolutely minimum standard, if built by contractors, would cost at least a thousand dollars each, everything in. A construction program for such houses, spread over twenty years, and allowing for an increase in population meanwhile, would involve a cash outlay of something like \$40,000,000 a year. Out of its actual revenues (assuming maximum taxation) the Government can devote only perhaps \$300,000 per year for popular housing over a sustained period. The Government cannot carry out anything like a \$40,000,000 pro-

gram each year, by any possible financial formula. They, like the families, feel the poverty of money. That is, the resources of the country at present cannot handle national housing improvement by the method of having new houses built entirely by others than the families themselves.

Third, the world problem taken as a whole is even more overwhelming. To provide new minimum tropical houses at the rate of 10,000,000 per year (in the hope of catching up with the need in twenty-five or thirty years) would cost at least \$10,000,000,000 per year, if the contractor method were used. Now, the world community could probably afford such an outlay, if the relatively rich subsidized the relatively poor, as is done for low-income housing to some degree in most of the more advanced countries. But this does not seem in early prospect, even though it may be considered an eventual international objective.

Some will point out at this juncture, that economic progress, industrialization, and greater productivity will make it possible ultimately for families and nations to provide for every tropical family at least the thousand-dollar-house built by the contractor method. This is a basic goal, to be achieved as rapidly as all circumstances permit. But meanwhile the families, the popular leaders, the governments, and the international organizations face the question of what to do now, during the intervening relatively long period. For, at this time, in general, they cannot find any way to get such minimum houses in very large numbers for the millions who live in huts.

It is not my intention to belittle the construction of houses by contractors of one type or another. Where families or com-

munities can afford this method, it is probably the best that has been devised. In fact, in nearly all situations the use of the contractor to some degree is most economic. I have made a somewhat black-and-white case here only to bring out the principles and the proposition which I have in mind.

Wealth of Manpower and Materials.—Against the discouraging picture which I have outlined, let us make a sort of appraisal of the resources which are readily available now and which may be mobilized for dealing with the problem of popular housing in the tropics.

First, I believe that by all odds the greatest resource is the manpower of the families themselves. Most tropical families have always built their own huts. In doing so they have developed certain knowledge, certain traditions and certain skills. *Unaided*, and bound to some degree by tradition, they cannot build better than the poor huts in which they live. But, with some training and some financial and technical assistance, this resource in manpower is potentially enormous.

For the small tropical country cited above, if two members of each family devoted one day per week to home improvement work for a year, and if we place a monetary value of only a half-dollar per man-day for this work, we find, for 600,000 families, an annual value in self-help totalling \$ 30,000,000. If during any one year, only one family in ten took part in a program on this basis, the value would total \$3,000,000. Contrast this with the meagre \$300,000 which represents the amount which it is feasible for the Government to lay out each year in cash for popular housing.

Self-help I propose as the greatest single immediate resource for dealing with the wide improvement of shelter in the tropics.

Not that the self-help principle is limited to use in tropical regions. It is the prevailing principle for rural housing in most of the world; and it is a great factor for urban housing in Sweden and other countries. But it is probably best adapted to use in the tropics, as we shall see.

The monetary value of self-help is great, but this is not its greatest value. When the family and its neighbours play a major role in making better homes, their satisfaction and pride in creation and accomplishment can be one of the most important things in their lives. Real homes must be built with love; and only the family which helps to make its own home can in fact build with love. Further, the self-help principle makes it much easier for the family to be the permanent "owner" of the house than is possible by other formulae. I believe this has great merit in fostering a sense of security, since it reduces the fear and danger of eviction. Further, and very important, occupant ownership permits self-help also on maintenance and further improvement, without the need for any relatively large cash expenditures.

Likewise, in evaluating resources for tropical housing, all history demonstrates that abundant materials for building lie close at hand in nearly every locality. Most families in the tropics rarely purchase basic materials. They cannot afford to do so, and they do not have to do so. In traditional self-help building, earth is taken for walls, saplings and branches for wattle, thatch for roofs, and so on, in wide variation.

The presence of local native materials constitutes an enormous resource for building and for improving homes. But its potentialities are by no means realized yet. Industrial processes can make these mate-

rials far better for use, and also less costly in man-hours devoted to their extraction and preparation. Simple machines can make good bricks instead of crumbling earth blocks; roofing can be made from the materials now used for verminous thatch; cement is produced from ordinary limestone; from asbestos or clay, pipes are made to use in lieu of ditches; and so on at great length.

Of course, even the minimum home in the tropics may require some equipment which is not feasible to produce locally, metal articles for sanitation, perhaps hardware for doors and shutters, and electric wiring and fixtures, to name a few possible examples. The basic resources in materials, however, are almost always available in the neighbourhood.

The Aided-Self-Help Formula.—It is not my intent to propose any single formula for all tropical situations. That would be folly. Rather, I do propose that, with infinite modification and variation, certain principles can be widely adapted to tropical housing problems.

That is, I believe these principles to be useful for countries or regions where the community decides not to wait for a generation or two until it has achieved relatively great overall economic advance; and where it is decided to mobilize and utilize the available resources, not to build a few hundred or a few thousand excellent houses, but *to improve the shelter of the whole population as best possible within the limits of those resources.*

For on these two points great mistakes have been made over and over again. Virtually paralyzed by the enormous size and complexity of the task, many governments have in effect called it hopeless for the time being, and have decided to do

almost nothing about popular housing. They do not like to take this negative and defeatist position, but they feel helpless when they are unable to find a practicable formula.

Or, conversely, under the necessity of making a start, they devote the resources which the government itself can muster to the construction of new houses for only one percent of the families who need them, or perhaps one-tenth of one per cent. For example, if the Government of the small tropical country used earlier for illustration were to devote its \$ 300,000 per year to providing 300 one-thousand-dollar houses, these would be far better than the huts, *but they would make almost no impression on the problem.* They now have perhaps 600,000 insanitary huts, and new families and new insanitary huts are being created at the rate of perhaps 10,000 per year. A program of 300 houses each year would eliminate the 600,000 huts in 2000 years; and meanwhile,—well, it becomes preposterous.

So the Aided-Self-Help Formula is proposed for purposes of doing the best possible through the coming ten or twenty or thirty years, toward the transition from huts to houses for the 200,000,000 tropical families who now live in conditions which are deplored by all who know them at first hand. And those conditions are in fact pretty tough; mud, filth, vermin, serious overcrowding, darkness.

The Elements of an Aided-Self-Help Program.—Of course, aided-self-help on the scale proposed cannot at once accomplish everything that may be desirable. It can only make shelter better in the most crucial respects,—an improvement, but not the final outcome. Hence, in applying the principle of aided-self-help, we may inquire:

What elements of shelter in the tropics are most important? What phases should be given priority in utilizing the limited resources?

Clearly, priority should be given to solving the problems of land and of sanitation. For tropical living, the nature of the shelter itself is perhaps not most critical. To achieve any marked improvement in the living environment, there must be made available enough land, with secure tenure, in a reasonable location. Very often this is not now the case. The matter of land comes first.

Then, health and cleanliness and convenience require above all else potable water safe for drinking and cooking, and convenient for washing. Ordinarily, self-help alone cannot meet this need. There is also necessary a sanitary method for disposal of wastes, but this can be provided by modern sewerage or by sanitary privies of some type.

For the shelter itself, improvement is most needed in providing hard, clean floors, in better types of roofing, and in the enlargement and division of inside space.

The elements which have to be aided now emerge. The community, through the government or otherwise, can assist the families with the problems of land, sanitation, materials, machines, organization, techniques and training. It is in this way that the formula becomes self-help-plus, or aided-self-help.

Let us illustrate by a specific example. This is the same hypothetical example, but it comes close to the essential facts in some fairly typical situations. Assume 600,000 families living in primitive huts. Assume an increase of 10,000 each year in the number of poor families and poor huts.

Assume a program aimed at 20,000 somewhat better homes each year to substitute for huts. Assume cash incomes in the range of \$100 per family per year; and assume that these families can and will pay out one dollar cash per month for improving their homes.

The main outlines of such a program might be organized to include:

Land and Utilities.—In this example, the Government will provide the land for the houses, install such utilities as can be afforded, and furnish the community services. For this application of the formula it is proposed that a monthly rental of a half-dollar be paid by the family to reimburse the government for its costs in the land-and-utility phase of the operation.

The land element involves selection of sites, and hence involves problems of town and country planning, and also site planning. These are very complex problems and they require the greatest skill and ingenuity, particularly in view of the tiny cash amounts available per family to cover the costs of land, utilities and services. Economy in site development, as also the application of the self-help principle in construction, ideally require that the house be clustered and not widely scattered, nor piled up in flats,—villages in the country and fringe settlements for the towns and cities.

The utilities include such water supply, sanitary drainage, and electricity as it is possible to provide within the fifty cents per month. Here is a field for technical research of the utmost importance, both by national and by international agencies. The utility arrangements now so common in the temperate zones must be entirely recast for minimum conditions in the tropics.

Community services include the best that can be devised at very small cost in the way of recreation facilities; fire protection; waste removal; road maintenance (if any); and such institutions as nurseries and clinics. Some part or all of the cash cost of such services are usually covered from funds other than the home improvement funds. Neighbourhood co-operation can and must reduce the strictly local cash cost to very low figures.

Materials.—Great progress is being made all over the world both in the development of new types of materials and in the industrial processes for producing materials. Again, research in this field offers great opportunities for international co-operation. In the example which we are reviewing here, the National Government will make an exhaustive study of the problem of materials. And they will proceed, as seems most sensible from year to year, to encourage the use of materials which the families can gather themselves; to encourage or directly develop the materials industries; and, where it is economic, to continue or facilitate the import of certain materials and equipment. The Government may also initiate a plan for the storage and distribution of materials. Development of the materials industry may be part of a generally beneficial program of industrialization; and it may involve international credit and technical assistance.

At the end of two years this particular Government may be encouraging the use of local earth plus cement for floors and walls; and for this purpose it may have established a new, small-scale domestic cement industry. It may have devised a home-made method of making doors and shutters from native lumber. It may have introduced a design and a vermin-proof fiber-board roofing which offers complete insulation and ventilation, and although

relatively short-lived, very inexpensive. From the experience of some other country, it may have found a method for drilling wells and pumping, storing and distributing domestic water supply which costs only a fraction as much as traditional temperate-zone methods.

The Government has made compromises, and it still faces many problems; but, for the time being it has rationalized the materials supply for self-help housing; and it has been made possible far better minimum houses than were possible before.

Construction.—The families do most of the construction themselves. The neighbours help; and skilled labour is drawn in only as necessary. The Government provides simple plans and technical assistance. Equally important, they inaugurate a training program on construction methods and on maintenance. If the other phases of the undertaking are operating well, the actual construction is easy.

For the types of small houses advocated at this time, it is necessary for the family to purchase seventy dollars worth of materials and equipments,—cement, fiber board, a little pipe, elementary electric wiring, and a chemical toilet box. The family also has to hire for two weeks, from the Government or elsewhere, a manual machine for making carth-cement blocks, at a cost of ten dollars. And twenty dollars worth of skilled labour has to be utilized. In order to pay for these items during the relatively short period of construction, the Government has arranged for the family to borrow one hundred dollars and, in twenty years, to repay it with the other fifty cents per month which the family can afford to lay in cash towards the improvement of its home.

The Choice for Governments.—It is clear now that the formula consists of Self-help

Plus; and that the plus is in the form of governmental assistance within the available resources and ingenuity. It is clear that, where this formula can be applied, it can produce very large numbers of houses which are far superior to the traditional huts. The Government has choice to make between doing nothing now or building a very few excellent houses which will actually accomplish almost nothing as measured against the problem or undertaking an aided-self-help program.

True, the families have to become interested. A propaganda campaign and the offer of the formula will prove whether it will be taken up and become popular, or whether it can be reshaped for the purposes. Perhaps only a hundred families join up the first year. If it goes well, (as originally organized, or as readapted) a thousand will subscribe the second year, and ten thousand the third year.

Even for so elementary a program, there is much for the Government to do. A Ministry or Department or Agency has to be designated or established. Competent people have to be assigned or engaged. The problems have to be catalogued, evaluated and analyzed. A program has to be formulated. The fundamental matter of land utilities has to be dealt with. Research

has to be undertaken. International assistance and experience have to be canvassed. The supply of materials has to be rationalized. The small loans have to be arranged and effected. Education and training have to be instituted.

Formidable! Particularly for small governments with little experience in this kind of thing, or for governments with many millions of families who need little houses in place of huts.

True, formidable. But what are governments for unless to tackle the great problems which their people cannot cope with unaided? What is the use in developing agriculture and industry and trade, education and public health and welfare, unless *concurrently* the homes of the people, the culmination of national and family life, are advanced as rapidly as the available resources and skill make possible?

The aided-self-help formula is not new, and it is not the last word. It is "tropical housing in transition". The present writer believes that, by analyzing, planning and organizing an aided-self-help program, many local, national and international communities can help greatly towards a solution of the basic shelter problems of 200,000,000 tropical families.

LEGAL AID TO THE POOR*

JUSTICE J. C. SHAH

In this article the author makes a fervent plea for "Legal Aid and Legal Advice" by the State to indigent persons. "The sense of frustration and bitterness which overpowers a litigant who reasonably believes has a true and just claim, but is unable to obtain redress on account of the insuperable barrier of expense beyond his means, is a fruitful source of a feeling of hostility towards the present order of things in general, and the State in particular." Therefore, the writer gives us the general principles underlying the scheme for rendering Legal Aid to the poor, in order to remove this canker of frustration and bitterness.

Justice J. C. Shah was appointed Permanent Judge of the Bombay High Court, March 1949.

Legal assistance to persons not having sufficient means to obtain advice is of vital importance. In the expression 'legal assistance' I include both Legal Aid and Legal Advice. By Legal Aid, I mean assistance in the conduct of proceedings in a court of law, such as remission of court fees; and other incidental expenses and the provision of free representation by lawyers. By Legal Advice, I mean advice on legal matters, including the drafting of agreements and conveyances, and negotiations. There was a time when litigation,—the assertion of legal rights both in and out of court—was believed to be a necessary evil, arising out of the quarrelsome instincts of the citizens, and which had to be tolerated. The State assumed an attitude of benevolent neutrality in the matter of litigation and only provided a pyramid of courts in which the litigants were expected to litigate their disputes, and granted licences to a band of experts in law who would act for the litigants and assist them in obtaining redress.

The conception of a duty of the State to provide a social welfare service for the benefit of indigent persons is of very modern growth. Till lately the State never recognised that the citizens had any claim upon it to obtain assistance in the matter of

litigation before the courts of the realm. This policy of neutrality resulted in a sense of frustration in the mind of a substantial section of the community, that justice could be had only by those who could afford to defray often not inconsiderable amount required to be spent for securing the assistance of expert lawyers and meeting incidental expenses. If a person got injured on the road, he would be removed to a hospital maintained by the State, and would be treated there, if he so chose, practically free of charge. The public conscience recognised the existence of a duty to look after the health and well-being of the community at large, but when the life, liberty or property of an individual was threatened, by reason of conflicting claims, the aggrieved person was left to obtain redress for himself and the State rendered him no assistance. This state of affairs attracted the attention of thoughtful persons all over the world by the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the present century, and societies sprang up of which the aim was service of the indigent poor to obtain legal advice and assistance.

The principle of an effective system of providing legal aid to indigent persons and even the middle classes is a necessary incident of the rising public conscience,

*Presidential Address by the Honourable Mr. Justice J. C. Shah, The Bombay Provincial Legal Aid Conference, 1949.

which envisages a wider function for the Government than mere preservation of security—internal and external. Modern political thought expects every State which lays claim to be a civilized State to provide not merely security of life and limb for its citizens, but also to provide for that assistance which conduces to the welfare of the individual in all walks of life. Even in the most advanced State considerable leeway is still required to be made up so as to enable each individual to attain the utmost self-expression with equality of opportunity and equality of means.

Unfortunately in our country that aspect of social service of the nature of legal aid has for various reasons been thoroughly neglected by the State. During the period of the British Rule nothing more than the most rudimentary form of legal aid was available to the citizens. There was no opportunity for the citizens to obtain anything like free legal advice, even for the most deserving and the most indigent cases. The State maintained an attitude of neutrality in the matter of litigation as in several other spheres of life. It accepted no obligations to render any assistance to litigants except by providing Courts. It is refreshing to find that the Government of Bombay have in spite of numerous pressing problems, directed their attention to this matter of vital social service, and appointed a Committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Justice Bhagwati, to suggest ways and means to provide for a broad-based legal aid, to indigent litigants in the Province.

The provisions made in O. 33, Civil Procedure Code (1908) and the corresponding provisions in the earlier Codes, were not and are not of great assistance to the litigants, and sometimes serve as a handicap to the indigent litigant. The litigant

who desires to obtain this rudimentary assistance is known by the uncomplimentary designation of 'Pauper'. A Pauper is defined under the C. P. Code as a person who is not possessed of sufficient means to enable him to pay the fee prescribed by law for the plaint, or where no such fee is prescribed, when he is not entitled to property worth one hundred rupees other than his wearing apparel and the subject-matter of the suit. I have always failed to imagine any suit to which the second part of the definition would apply at least in those cases which are sought to be litigated in the Courts in the mofussil. So far as I am aware there is no "plaint" which can be lodged in a Court in respect of which "no fee is prescribed". I believe the provision has remained on the Statute Book as a matter of abundant caution, and is not applicable to any class of cases which comes before the courts of the realm on the Court Fees Act framed at present. To any one having the slightest acquaintance with the expenses of litigation, it must be obvious that the court fee payable on the plaint is comparatively a small fraction of the total expense which the litigant is called upon to bear in any fairly contested litigation. To confine legal aid to only that class of persons whose total means do not exceed the amount of court fee payable on a plaint, and that in respect of court fee only, is in effect denying any assistance. Even for securing this modicum of assistance the litigant has got to go through a searching enquiry as to his claim to "pauperism". For all the expenses required to be incurred for prosecuting the suit the Pauper Plaintiff is put on the same footing as an ordinary litigant. One notable lacuna which obviously handicaps the pauper plaintiff is that neither the Code, nor the Rules made or Circulars issued by the Courts provide for assigning a lawyer who would be bound to

act and work for him. Even the payment of the Court Fee is in a sense deferred. If the Pauper Plaintiff loses the suit partially or wholly he will be rendered liable for payment of the court fee as ordered by the court. The right of appeal by a pauper appellant is limited by several restrictions such as the *prima facie* satisfaction of the Appeal Court that he has a good case on a substantial question of law or that the decision of the trial court is unjust. In view of the nature of the assistance given and its extent, an indigent defendant has no opportunity of obtaining any assistance in the litigation, so far as the trial court is concerned. It is obvious, therefore, that the poor and indigent litigants who are required to litigate their claims before courts in the Districts, do not obtain any legal aid in any real sense of the term. There is no provision for legal advice before litigation is actually embarked upon. During the course of the litigation, a very small class of poor persons who satisfy the strict definition of the word "pauper" get the doubtful benefit of deferring payment of the court fee payable on the plaint; the pauper has got to bear all the incidental expenses and to pay the usual fee to the lawyers engaged by him; and if the pauper litigant happens to be an appellant he is put under an additional handicap to which the other litigants are not subject, *i. e.* that he must approach the appeal court within thirty days from the date of the decree of the court from whose decision the appeal is preferred and he must satisfy, besides his status as a pauper that his appeal raises a substantial question of law, or that the decision is otherwise erroneous or unjust meaning thereby *prima facie* erroneous or unjust.

In the case of pauper litigants before the High Court of Bombay, the position is slightly better inasmuch as under the Rules

obtaining on the Original Side, for the actual conduct of the case, the Prothonotary assigns counsel and attorney who must attend to the case without any expectation of remuneration from the pauper litigant.

The position of the litigant in a Criminal Court if not worse is certainly not better than that of a litigant in a Civil Court. Under the rules at present obtaining except in cases where an accused person is charged with the commission of an offence for which capital sentence may be inflicted there is no provision for giving any legal assistance in the courts of trial, and only in cases where the accused is charged with the commission of capital offences in an appeal court or where the Government prefers an appeal against an order of acquittal by the trial court that lawyers are assigned to an accused person in the appeal. Beyond exempting a person in custody from payment of court fee in criminal cases and assigning lawyers in a small class of cases, there is no other assistance rendered by the State to any litigant in a criminal court. It is obvious that the high incidence of court fee on the plaints and other incidental proceedings, and the remuneration required to be paid to lawyers, renders litigation even in assertion of genuine claims a luxury not within the reach of the poor or even the middle-class citizens.

It is beyond question that this state of affairs is entirely unsatisfactory. It is nothing but a truism to say that justice which is beyond the means of a citizen is not real justice; it might tend to be an instrument for enforcing the will of a rich and comparatively well-to-do person through the agency of the State, his will on his less fortunate opponent.

There is always in every State (and especially in our country where the average

income is so miserably low and a large section is so poor that it is unable to afford anything but the barest means of subsistence), a large class of persons who are unable to obtain redress of their wrongs with their unaided resources. This section when called upon to undertake litigation for the protection of its rights always has to resort to the moneylender, who advances moneys on extortionate terms or to enter into champertous agreements with the trafficker in litigation. It often happens that irrespective of the ultimate result of the litigation (even if it terminates entirely in his favour) the poor litigant who has had to borrow money for financing his litigation or has entered into an agreement to share the fruits of his victory is more often than not a loser in the final result. It is therefore easy to imagine the dissatisfaction which this section of the public must feel towards the system of administration of justice. The doors of the courts of justice are supposed to be open to all and sundry, but so are supposed to be the doors of all the institutions which cater for the benefit of the public; but are they really so? The advantage is only obtained by the comparatively well-to-do who can afford to obtain the benefit of the amenity provided by defraying the heavy expenses involved. The sense of frustration and bitterness which overpowers a litigant who reasonably believes has a true and just claim, but is unable to obtain redress on account of the insuperable barrier of expense beyond his means, is a fruitful source of a feeling of hostility towards the present order of things in general, and the State in particular.

Time is ripe when ways and means must be devised and adopted by the State for removing this canker of frustration and bitterness: and we must welcome the step taken by the Government to ascertain the

extent of legal aid to which the citizens are entitled, and the appointment of the Committee does not come a day too soon.

Individual effort is not wanting to remedy, so far as it is within the power of the individual to remedy this state of affairs; almost every lawyer has had occasion to work for litigants who had just claims but who were so poor that they could not pay his remuneration; societies like the Bombay Legal Aid Society are functioning which attempt at alleviating the suffering caused, but the problem is so large that it can be tackled only by the State with its ample resources, with the assistance of the public-spirited citizens both within and without the ranks of the legal profession. There is no gainsaying the fact that if it is the duty of the State to look after the health and well-being of its citizens and to devise ways and means to maintain the health and well-being of the citizens, it is as much the duty of the State to render the analogous form of social service, *viz.* providing for an institution through which legal advice and assistance should be given to persons who have a grievance.

In advocating this view, I am not unmindful of the danger that the agency of the State which provides legal assistance would be swamped by a mass of complaints and grievances of an imaginary character which either cannot be redressed or do not require any redress. However, it should not be more difficult to weed out the litigant with an imaginary grievance than to weed out a hypochondriac from the public hospital.

However, the more important question that presents itself is: how is this assistance to be rendered so as to make social service or legal aid reasonably efficient? The State cannot afford to forego the payment of the

court fee and it would not be in the interest of the State to do so in favour of all the litigants generally. Nor for obvious reasons the payment of the court fee be deferred till the conclusion of the trial in every case. You cannot abolish the lawyers as a class though that expedient is often suggested in the uninformed though influential quarters. In these days of ever-changing laws and a mass of legislation, courts cannot function without the expert aid rendered by the lawyers. The layman has neither the aptitude nor the training nor the facilities to acquaint himself with the maze of law, legislative, common and Judge-made: he cannot familiarise himself with the procedure of the Courts; he cannot sift the evidence, which is necessary to support his case, nor is he in a position to sift the relevant from irrelevant. All this assistance must be provided by the lawyers and if you seek to exclude lawyers from the courts there can be nothing but chaos.

The remedy therefore must be sought in a different direction. This is not the place, nor is the time at my disposal sufficient to enable me to go in detail into the varied aspects of the suggestions which I propose hereafter to make. I propose to state to you in the form of certain broad headings, certain principles which should govern the rendering of legal aid. I am conscious of the fact that each of these heads involves the enunciation of important matters of policy which may be disputed. I am also conscious of the fact that working of these principles may not be within the capacity of the agency which seeks to render legal aid, and would postulate the existence of a very much advanced state of economic development of our country, than what has been attained, so far. Bearing, however, in mind the difficulties, I proceed to state, what I conceive should be the general principles

underlying the scheme for rendering Legal Aid:—

- (1) The State must accept the obligation to provide legal assistance. The State must undertake this obligation not as a matter of doing charity to the indigent, but the rendering of a social service.
- (2) That the legal assistance must be given to a very much larger section of the public than the one which is permitted to obtain at present. This aid must be given at the cost of the State.
- (3) That the right to obtain legal assistance must be judged with reference not to the amount of court fee payable in a civil case, nor the nature of the charge made in a criminal case, but upon the capacity of the litigant to bear the burden of litigation expenses. Income of the litigant taken in conjunction with his other assets should be a test of capacity.
- (4) That legal assistance should not merely stop at rendering assistance when the dispute reaches the courts, but should include advice and the preliminaries to litigation.
- (5) That the agency through which the legal assistance service is rendered should be a State-sponsored agency, though not a department of the State. Such agency may be similar to the Law Society in England.
- (6) Legal assistance should be given to all persons who satisfy certain requirements as to the nature of the dispute regarding which they seek to obtain advice, or litigate in Court.

- (7) A lawyer should be assigned to a litigant for the conduct of his case, on the production of a certificate that he satisfies the requirements of law which justify the grant of assistance.
- (8) Reasonable remuneration should be paid to lawyers rendering legal assistance. The cost of the scheme of legal aid should be met from the (a) contributions made by persons to whom assistance is rendered, (b) costs recovered from the opposite parties, and (c) grant by the State.
- (9) Payment of court fees and other incidental fees should be deferred wholly or partially in respect of indigent litigants, taking into consideration the capacity of the litigant. A scale of contributions for those who can partially meet the costs should be devised.
- (10) That a branch of the legal agency must be a necessary adjunct to every court, Criminal and Civil, and should as far as possible be managed through the agency of the lawyers attached or practising in that court.
- (11) That the expressions "pauper" and "pauperism" should be deleted from all legislation intended to ameliorate the condition of persons who need assistance and should be substituted by expressions such as "assisted persons."

It may not be out of place to direct our attention to other States, notably the United Kingdom. In the year 1944 a Committee under the chairmanship of Lord Rushcliffe was appointed "to enquire what facilities at

present exist in England and Wales for giving legal advice and assistance to Poor Persons, and to make recommendations as appear to be desirable for the purpose of securing that Poor Persons in need of legal advice may have such facilities at their disposal, and for modifying and improving, so far as seems expedient, the existing system whereby legal aid is available to Poor Persons in the conduct of litigation in which they are concerned, whether in civil or criminal courts."

The Committee made a detailed report which was submitted to the Parliament and the principal recommendations of what is known as the Rushcliffe Committee Report have been accepted by the Government and are incorporated in a Bill which aims at providing free legal aid and advice. Before I place before you the details of the provisions of the Bill, it may be pertinent to note that even in the United Kingdom before 1914, practically the same conditions prevailed regarding "Legal Assistance" in the matter of civil litigation as are prevalent in our country at present. In that year O. XVI was added to the Supreme Court Rules, under which, after making certain enquiries, the Court had the power to admit a litigant as a "Poor Person", and assign to him a solicitor and counsel; the effect of the admission being that the Poor Person was not required to pay any court fee, the counsel and solicitor assigned to him were forbidden to charge him anything for acting for him, and that the Poor Person was not to pay the costs of the other party, except where he had acted unreasonably in prosecuting or defending the action. These rules were applicable, however, to the Supreme Court. Various amendments were made in the Rules from time to time as defects were discovered in the working thereof, and the provisions were extended

to certain selected Assize Towns. It is a curious commentary that the advantage of these provisions was taken by a large number of persons in matrimonial causes. The Rules of the Supreme Court did not apply to the County Court, and there was no system of assistance to Poor Persons engaged in litigation in that Court.

In the Criminal Courts, apart from what were known as the "dock briefs" and requesting the *amicus curiae*, in cases of unusual difficulty or importance, the first step in Legal Assistance was taken in 1903, by the enactment of the Poor Persons' Defence Act. Under that Act on a certificate being given that legal aid should be provided to an accused person, the expenses of the defence were to be met by the Public Exchequer. This Act was substituted by the Poor Persons' Defence Act, 1930, under which more extensive legal aid was provided for Poor Persons, both in cases tried before the Courts of Summary Jurisdiction, as well as the Quarter Sessions or Assizes. There were certain provisions also made relating to legal aid in the matter of presentation of appeals.

Apart from the statutory provisions relating to Legal Aid and Advice, there were and are several voluntary organisations which rendered legal assistance to Poor Persons.

In paragraph 127 of their Report the Rushcliffe Committee made the following recommendations in the matter of civil litigation:

- (1) Legal aid should be available in all Courts and in such manner as will enable persons in need to have access to the professional help they require;

- (2) This provision should not be limited to those who are normally classed as poor but should include a wider income group;
- (3) Those who cannot afford to pay anything for legal aid should receive this free of cost. There should be a scale of contributions for those who can pay something towards costs;
- (4) The cost of the scheme should be borne by the State, but the scheme should not be administered either as a department of State or by local authorities;
- (5) The legal profession should be responsible for the administration of the scheme, except that part of it dealt with under the Poor Prisoners Defence Act;
- (6) Barristers and solicitors should receive adequate remuneration for their services;
- (7) The Law Society should be requested to frame a scheme on the lines outlined in our detailed recommendations providing for the establishment of Legal Aid Centres in appropriate towns and cities throughout the country;
- (8) The Law Society should be answerable to the Lord Chancellor for the administration of the scheme, and a Central Advisory Committee should be appointed to advise him on matters of general policy;
- (9) The term "poor person" should be discarded and the term "assisted person" adopted.

In paragraph 140, the same Committee made the following six recommendations in the matter of criminal litigation:

- (1) Legal aid shall be granted in all cases heard in criminal courts where it appears desirable in the interests of justice, and that any doubt as to whether or not a certificate shall be granted, shall be resolved in favour of the applicant. In the term "all cases" we include the parties on both sides in civil cases coming before the criminal courts;
- (2) A certificate entitling the person to whom it is granted to legal aid shall be granted in cases in Magistrates' Courts by two magistrates, one stipendiary or alderman of the City of London, as the case may be; in Quarter Sessions by the Recorder or Chairman; in other courts by the Judge. Provision shall be made for application to the Clerk of the Court by letter or in person;
- (3) On appeal, a certificate may be granted either by the Court from whose decision or by the Court to which the appeal is made;
- (4) It shall be the duty of the authority granting a certificate to ensure that adequate time is allowed for the preparation of the case. In normal circumstances this should not be less than four days;
- (5) Solicitors and barristers shall be fairly remunerated, having regard to the amount of work involved in each case. The amount to be paid shall be assessed by the Clerk to the Justices, Clerk of the Peace or the Clerk of Assize, as the case may be,

and that official may call for and tax a bill. In this matter there shall be an appeal from the Clerk to the Justices to the Clerk of the Peace and in the case of a Quarter Session bill from the Clerk of the Peace to the Chairman of Quarter Sessions. Proper allowances for travelling (including travel by car, which shall be allowed at the same rates as the County Council for the country concerned allows its Officers) and reasonable allowances for witnesses, including expert witness shall be made;

- (6) The cost of working this system shall be borne by the tax-payer and not by the rate-payer as at present.

And they made several detailed suggestions as to the class of persons to be aided, method of calculating the means of and contributions by assisted persons in civil cases and criminal cases.

Acting upon this Report, the Bill introduced in Parliament, provides for Legal Aid to all persons whose disposable income does not exceed £420 a year—nearly Rs. 5,000 a year.

I can do no better than tell you what the relevant portions of the Bill are:

Financial Conditions of Legal Aid.—

2.—(1) Subject to this Part of this Act, legal aid shall be available for any person whose disposable income does not exceed four hundred and twenty pounds a year:

Provided that a person may be refused legal aid if he has a disposable capital of more than five hundred pounds and it appears that he can afford to proceed without legal aid.

(2) Where a person receives legal aid in connection with any proceedings—

(a) the expenses incurred in connection with the proceedings, so far as they would ordinarily be paid in the first instance by or on behalf of the solicitor acting for him, shall be so paid except in the case of those paid direct from the legal aid fund as provided by this Part of this Act;

(b) his solicitor and counsel shall not take any payment in respect of the legal aid except from the legal aid fund as provided by this Part of this Act;

(c) he may be required to make a contribution to the legal aid fund in respect of the sums payable thereout on his account;

(d) any sums recovered by virtue of an order for costs made in his favour with respect to the proceedings shall be paid to the legal aid fund;

(e) his liability by virtue of an order for costs made against him with respect to the proceedings shall not exceed the amount (if any) which is a reasonable one for him to pay.

(3) Regulations shall make provision as to the court, tribunal or person by whom the amount referred to in paragraph (e) of the last foregoing sub-section is to be determined and the extent to which any determination thereof is to be final.

(4) For the purpose of any inquiry under this section as to the means of a person against whom an order for costs has been made, his dwelling house and household furniture and the tools and implements of his trade shall be left out of account, and

except in such cases and to such extent as may be prescribed they shall, in all parts of the United Kingdom, be protected from seizure in execution to enforce the order.

Contributions from Assisted Person and Charge on Property Recovered.—

(3)—(1) A person's contribution to the legal aid fund in respect of any proceedings may include—

(a) a contribution in respect of income not greater than half the amount (if any) by which his disposable income exceeds one hundred and fifty-six pounds a year; and

(b) a contribution in respect of capital not greater than the amount (if any) by which his disposable capital exceeds seventy-five pounds.

(2) A person may be required to make any contribution to the legal aid fund in one sum or by instalments.

(3) If the total contribution to the legal aid fund made by a person in respect of any proceedings is more than the net liability of this fund on his account the excess shall be repaid to him.

(4) Except so far as regulations otherwise provide, any sums remaining unpaid on account of a person's contribution to the legal aid fund in respect of any proceedings and, if the total contribution is less than the net liability of that fund on his account, a sum equal to the deficiency shall be a first charge for the benefit of the legal aid fund on any property (wherever situate) which is recovered or preserved for him in the proceedings.

(5) The reference in the last foregoing sub-section to property recovered or pre-

served for any person shall include his rights under any compromise arrived at to avoid or bring to an end the proceedings and any sums recovered by virtue of an order for costs made in his favour in the proceedings (not being sums payable into the legal aid fund under the last foregoing section).

(6) The charge created by sub-section (4) of this section on any damages or costs shall not prevent a court allowing them to be set off against other damages or costs in any case where a solicitor's lien for costs would not prevent it.

(7) References in this section to the net liability of the legal aid fund on any person's account in relation to any proceedings refer to the aggregate amount of the sums paid for or payable out of that fund on his account in respect of those proceedings to any solicitor or counsel and not recouped to that fund by sums which are recovered by virtue of an order for costs made in his favour with respect to those proceedings.

Solicitors and Counsel.—

5.—(1) Panels of solicitors and barristers willing to act for persons receiving legal aid shall be prepared and maintained, and there may be separate panels for different purposes, for different courts and for different districts.

(2) Any practising solicitor or barrister shall be entitled to have his name on the appropriate panels or any of them, unless there is good reason for excluding him arising out of his conduct when acting or selected to act for persons receiving legal aid or his professional conduct generally, or, in the case of a member of a firm of solicitors, out of that of any person who is for time being a member of the firm.

(3) Where a person is entitled to receive legal aid, the solicitor to act for him and,

if the case requires counsel, his counsel shall be selected from the appropriate panel, and he shall be entitled to make the selection himself:

Provided that—

(a) this sub-section shall not prejudice the rights of solicitor or counsel where he has good reason to refuse or give up a case or entrust it to another; and

(b) the solicitor selected, if shown on the panel as a member of a firm, shall act in the name of the firm.

(4) Subject to this part of this Act, a solicitor who has acted for a person receiving legal aid shall be paid for so acting out of the legal aid fund, and any fees paid to the counsel for so acting shall also be paid out of that fund.

(5) The sums payable under the last foregoing sub-section to a solicitor or counsel shall not exceed those allowed under the Third Schedule to this Act.

(6) Notwithstanding anything in sub-section (3) of this section, where the maximum contribution payable to the legal aid fund by a person receiving legal aid in connection with a matrimonial cause is not more than ten pounds, then unless regulations otherwise provide the solicitor to act for him shall not be a solicitor selected from the panel but a solicitor employed whole-time for a salary to deal with cases to which this sub-section applies; and where the solicitor who acts for a person receiving legal aid is one employed—

(a) he shall not be entitled to any further payment under sub-section (4) of this section except for his disbursements; and

(b) no sum paid or payable to him otherwise than under the said sub-section (4) shall be treated for the purposes of sub-section (7) of section three of this Act as paid or payable on account of the person for whom he acts.

(7) In the foregoing provisions of this section, references to acting for a person receiving legal aid shall, in relation to a solicitor, include acting indirectly for such person, as agent for his solicitor, so, however, that any selection from the panel of a solicitor to act as agent shall be made by the solicitor for whom he is to act.

(8) Nothing in this section shall prejudice paragraph (b) of sub-section (7) of section one of this Act, and in particular—

(a) sub-section (5) and (6) of this section shall not affect the sums recoverable by virtue of an order for costs made in favour of a person who has received legal aid; and

(b) for the purpose of any such order, the solicitor who acted for the person in whose favour it is made shall be treated as having paid any counsel's fees.

Right to and Nature of Legal Advice.—

6.—(1) Subject to this part of this Act, legal advice shall be available in England and Wales for any person, and outside Great Britain for any member of the forces.

(2) Legal advice shall consist of oral advice on legal questions given by a solicitor employed whole-time or part-time for the purpose and shall include help in preparing an application for legal aid and in supplying information required in connection therewith for determining disposable income and capital, but (subject to the following provisions of this section) shall not include advice on any law other than English law.

(7) A person seeking legal advice may be required—

(a) to satisfy the person employed to give it that he cannot afford to obtain it in the ordinary way;

(b) to pay a fee of half a crown or such other fee as may be prescribed for each interview.

(8) Any fees paid under this section shall be paid into the legal aid fund.

(9) A person seeking legal advice shall have the same privilege for communications made for that purpose to the person giving it, and the same remedies against that person for any negligence, as if he had been consulting him as his solicitor in the ordinary way.

If a rich and comparatively more advanced State like the United Kingdom thinks it necessary to provide extensive legal assistance of the nature stated above, is it not proper that in our country where legal assistance is a matter of urgent necessity, it should be provided by the State?

THE PRESENT ECONOMIC SITUATION

J. C. KUMARAPPA

In a simple but clear way, and sometimes strong and controversial language, the author has analysed the present economic situation. "The present day economic organisation is all for the haves and not for the have-nots." Therefore, planning should be such as to give priority to food, clothing and shelter for the masses. According to the writer, our economic machinery is purely material-centred. It takes no cognisance of moral values, which it should if it is to be modelled on the Gandhian school of thought.

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In the present situation what India needs is a very well-thought-out plan working along which we may progressively move toward a goal, which will be the fulfillment of a specific purpose in life for both the people and the Government.

It is of no avail to imitate what has been done in America, Japan, Germany, France, England, or any other country. Each nation has to solve its problems on its own lines, given the circumstances under which that nation labours, or is placed under. This being so, what is the peculiar position of India that calls for our consideration?

The following three factors, namely, the human side, the natural resources and the power which may be utilised, might be taken into account before we can examine and formulate an economic organisation to suit our purpose.

Morals in Economics.—In addition to these there must be set up before the Nation a cultural and philosophical ideology. Our approach has to be modified in the light of that ideology. If a person sets out to make money it does not necessarily mean that as long as he gets money he achieves his purpose in life. If it is only a question of making money, the easiest way to get rich is to put one's hands into somebody's pocket! One need not labour, one just steals someone's purse and

thus gets rich quick. But some who have moral compunctions would hold that this method of making money is not proper. So both our ideals and actions are governed by considerations which bring us to a position where we cannot pursue our only objective as the final thing. And, that as far as man is concerned, moral values should hold a very high place in all his activities. Therefore, we have to consider the various implications of our actions before we can say what form our economic organisation should take and how we should go about it.

Our Approach.—In India, what are our hindrances and how are we to overcome them? We may approach our problems from a purely material point of view or from the metaphysical point of view. Apart from our own actions we must calculate also the reaction of the people, and then see how far we achieve our objectives in relation to the people themselves. This is where Gandhiji has given us an approach and a programme which differs so widely from any programme that has been set out in other lands.

In America, England, and other places the main approach has been from the material side, and hence they have not bothered very much about the means, while we are restricted by considerations of the means, our goal and the philosophy of life behind it. So, we have to co-ordinate all these

and take a course which will lead us towards our goal. If we take only the material point of view that will not satisfy our moral standard of values, which are to be applied at every stage if we lay claim to being a cultured nation, or a nation with a spiritual background. Our values will have to indicate what we are in the long run. If we want lasting results, we shall ultimately have to meet on religious and spiritual grounds.

An examination of the various schools of thought that are operating in our land will show that though apparently they lead much in the same direction, yet on closer study we shall find that their paths diverge. We have the Communist, the Socialist and the Gandhian School. Apparently, the Gandhian school would seem to be sometimes Communist and sometimes Socialist, but there is a fundamental difference in the approach, or, shall we say, in the priority given. The Communist gives a priority to equalising society of a type within certain limits; the Socialist probably gives a priority to material production. There will be other considerations also, but the priority is mainly material well-being. Those who belong to the Gandhian school will probably give a priority to moral and other considerations on that level, even at the cost of less material production. They may emphasise the moral reactions of one man's action on other men. Hence our programme will reflect these special features. We shall restrict ourselves here to the Gandhian approach emphasising the moral values even if it be at the cost of material values.

What are the moral and spiritual considerations that we have to impart to our everyday transactions? This is an important question for we are not merely concerned with satisfying our animal needs, we are also concerned with how our methods of

approach to obtain those animal needs reflect or affect our fellowmen. If a certain thing is taken from somebody leaving that person adversely affected we may conclude that that method of approach is not correct. Our actions should be of mutual benefit. That should be our test.

Priorities.—What are the things that are required most? To state that India is a poor country and we must produce more is hackneyed. We hear from various platforms the same cry. Wherein lies our poverty? That should indicate the point of attack. Some may want to produce atom bombs, others motor cars and a third more tables and chairs. These are no doubt, production of 'more'. But whether that 'more' fits in with our analysis of the human needs is a matter that will decide the correctness of our approach. If we feel that the poverty in our country is largely one which the villager suffers from, then we should analyse his needs and produce more on the lines which will satisfy them. If the villager is short of food, clothes and shelter then these are the things on the production of which we must concentrate. Only such production will have a meaning.

Produce more food, not in terms of America or Australia, but produce the stuff that our own villagers need. Jam is no doubt a food product, but it does not figure in the daily menu of the masses. Let us have a picture of the needs of India at the present time. Unless we are aware of these needs our economic organisation cannot be turned towards them.

Our Needs.—Once in the course of a survey in C. P. about a dozen of us were going from one village to another on a moon-lit night. Whilst passing through a jungle which was lying between two villages,

we noticed a shade hopping about. Some said it was a wild animal and some that it looked like a human figure. At last we plucked up courage and made towards it! As we drew near, it turned out to be the figure of an old woman. She was crawling along, collecting grass seeds. We asked her why she was out to collect grass seeds in the dead of night? She replied that the owner of the pastureland would drive her out if she came to collect grass seeds by day. She would boil the grass seeds and prepare a gruel to keep her empty stomach from sticking together. Such is the dire poverty in our land. Instead of grass seeds she could be given *bajra* or *jawar*. This means raising her standard of living. So, we have to keep that human figure in mind when we go about planning to raise our standard of living. We need not plan for refrigerators and other comforts of life in cities while such shortage in prime needs lasts. We keep talking of growing more food. Now, what does the jam of Australia mean to this old woman who lives on grass seeds? This condition we have to bear in mind while we plan for our country.

Therefore planning economically for our country will have to start with a thorough knowledge of the conditions of the people for whom we are planning and their needs. A priority has to be worked out. For instance, a piece of land which is being cultivated for food may be taken over for various types of raw materials for mills. Here the emphasis placed on the production of raw materials is misplaced as long as there is shortage of food. Mills produce a pressure on lands as much as the growth of population. The pressure of mills on land is comparable to the pressure of population on land. When a child is born he requires about an acre of land for his

existence, but a mill requires two to three thousand acres. Instead of trying to lessen the pressure of population on land by birth-control, we may as well face the question of mill-control.

What is Production?—Take the case of the sugar industry. Producing more of white sugar is not production if we look at it from the point of the needs of that old woman who was collecting grass seeds. She probably requires only sufficient starch for her body to convert it into sugar and energy. She does not really need white sugar or polished rice.

In the case of rice the nutritious element is removed in the mill and only the starch remains. Polishing becomes necessary when rice has to be transported on a large scale over long distances. So, when Brazil rice is brought to India it has to be polished. This polished rice is devoid of nutrition. And therefore we are destroying what Nature has given us and which is very vital to this old woman. The rice mill is not a productive but a destructive agent in the present context of conditions in India. The more the mills the greater is the destruction in the country in terms of nutritional values.

Similarly, in Bihar, for instance, we have sugar mills. Wherever sugarcane is cultivated the land becomes deficient in nitrogen and phosphates. We remove the nutritive element from the sugarcane juice and convert it into white sugar. White sugar is only an energy producing article, as good as white charcoal. It provides heat to the body but no nutrition while from gur we get all the nutritive as well as the energy-producing elements. The minerals are taken out by the mills as molasses. Even to assimilate that we require calcium. Gur contains the necessary amount of calcium,

but, sugar does not. So if one takes sugar one has to have calcium from somewhere else to digest it. If one takes milk, calcium comes from it. If one does not take milk or such other things which contain sufficient calcium, the requisite amount of calcium will come from the blood. The blood will reimburse its calcium requirements from other sources, namely teeth. If we take white sugar without taking calcium containing elements we get caries in a large measure. So, a sugar mill must be asked to establish dental hospitals nearby to compensate in a measure for the evil it is creating. Like the rice mill the sugar mill too, we notice, is not productive but a destructive agent!

With that type of old woman in our picture, we can see, what purposes the sugar mill or rice mill can and does play in the economic organisation! Should we not call it a criminal waste in a land where the people are under-nourished? Such rice mills or sugar mills can have no place whatsoever in an economic organisation based on the needs of our people.

What is Science?—We must remember that America is very different in all its environment and we cannot imitate its methods. Therefore, the circumstances under which we work should lead us to solve our problems in our own way. We cannot just follow either America, England or Germany. With all their "Scientific" methods where have they got to? Notice to what extremities these countries have been reduced during the last few years by merely emphasising the material side of production. People ask that in the scientific age can we go on with the simple way suggested? "Is it Science?" Science is our understanding of nature and getting into an alignment with it. Increase produc-

tion in co-operation with Nature. A rice mill or a sugar mill does not produce in that sense. They are merely agents of destruction. In this context, are sugar mills and rice mills scientific? Can we talk in terms of our being in a scientific age when we are deliberately destroying everything that Nature gives us? Science must teach us how to satisfy our requirements correctly without bringing about a waste. From this view point we conclude that the method that has been adopted in Germany, America, France or any other country is neither scientific nor productive. After 150 years of their experience, today they are needing every little consumer goods that can be obtained from outside. In Germany they have come down to the beggar's bowl for food! France, after 100 years experience has come to a stage where she has not enough to eat. Is this the result of being scientific? Anything that claims to be scientific has to be studied in the setting in which it is placed and the result obtained.

Even in America the conditions are not such as we can commend. She flourished because of some deficiencies elsewhere. There the wealth is going up whereas in Europe, its counterpart, it is going down. That is no creation of wealth.

Wealth Producer.—The real wealth producer is the farmer. He sows one grain and gets a hundred. Unfortunately these farmers are starving today, they are also in a very weak position financially. There are several reasons conducive to that and we shall presently analyse the situation with special reference to the conditions that prevail in India.

After 150 years of large-scale production the European countries have been reduced to beggary, specially Germany and France. So, without going into the depressing details

of their fate it is enough for us to draw our conclusions on the basis of the experience of those countries which claim to have been working through scientific organisations, both social and economic. When we find that they are not even meeting their primary needs we should leave them aside and study our own conditions and rely on our own resourcefulness to solve our problems.

Effect of Agricultural Prices.—There is an impression today that due to the rise of prices, a good many of our villagers are getting rich. This may be true of surplus producers but it cannot be true of the bulk of our agriculturists who are not surplus producers—they are in deficit. Where they have no surplus they cannot benefit by a rise in prices, as they have nothing to sell.

The method of fixation of prices also needs correction. Prices of agricultural products are fixed with reference to the price levels of other countries—the entire attempt being based on monetary standards of value. Prices of a number of articles are taken and from them the economists work out some index figures. Then they calculate the agricultural price on that basis. Indices are worked with special reference to some industrial products and the latter are based on the price of raw materials. Raw materials being part of the final industrial product the prices of these materials are kept low to make the resulting industrial product cheap. Therefore, when we depend on such indices we are again calculating the agricultural price on these indices which will naturally give us a low figure for the agricultural products. This is not the proper way of fixing prices. There must be some independent unit on the basis of which the price of agricultural products can be calculated. Fixing prices must not

be left to the consumer or his representatives, as is the case now.

Take for example a bicycle factory. The shopkeeper marks the prices of a bicycle at Rs. 150/-, which is the producer's price. As consumers, suppose we have the backing of the Government who fix the price of bicycles at Rs. 50/-, then bicycles must be sold at Rs. 50/- each. The factory owner could well argue that cycle manufacture is not a paying proposition because the consumers fix the price without reference to the cost of production. In the same way agriculture is being proclaimed as not being a paying proposition today. So long as procurement plan goes along these lines, it is a legalised loot from the countryside. When somebody fixes the prices and takes away the product without paying any heed to the cost of production we can only call it loot. So, these present-day methods of government procurement are really victimising the poor people of the villages. And, this is the present economic organisation in the current financial make-up. This method by which we are going on increasing payments in a vicious cycle will lead us to inflation inevitably.

Change in Measure of Values.—Our scale of values changes because of these price levels being altered. There are certain checks that operate on our personal budgets because of the standards of values we employ. Suppose one lives on Rs. 300/- a month. A certain scale of priorities operates. Multiply the income by 100, and all of a sudden one gets a large amount of money which one does not know how to spend. So one spends without thinking. A newspaper report some time back stated that our Governor-General went to Bombay and gave Rs. 1,300/- for a race cup for fillies and colts. This is for gambling. The present Governor-General can never be

accused of gambling and yet circumstances have led him to support that institution. Due to this inflation we lose our standards of value and we are carried off our feet. This is what is taking place in India to-day. Black-marketing is the order of the day and it is up-rooting our social order. Many things are coming over the people in this manner because of this inflation. Today financing means the use of the printing press! When such courses were resorted to under the British regime we were criticising it. But today our Ministers are intolerant of any criticism. When we call ourselves democrats we have a right to criticise, and as a matter of fact the Ministers ought to welcome criticism. The Ministers have to have their fingers on the pulse of the Nation. When a thief enters a house he desires to put off the lights but the householder welcomes light. So long as the people have a democratic government they have the right and also an obligation to criticise and point out the errors of the Ministers, and it is only by such criticism that the Minister can feel the pulse of the people. If the Government have definite intentions of serving the people they would want more light and still more light. We have to see how our money that is given to the Government for certain purposes, is spent for those ends in the development of the country.

At the present time, as far as we can see, there is not very much difference between the way the Britishers were carrying on and the way our National Government is working. We need not blame the Ministers for that. Probably the same machinery is there. The same quislings are still there, and, what is more pathetic, our Ministers, not having a philosophy to guide them, follow the permanent officials unquestioningly. The latter have got a plan

of a sort, but no philosophy. Whatever the I. C. S. man says the Ministers agree. And, therefore, ultimately the same old plan of work as under the British is being carried out. The picture of that old woman gathering grass seeds is not before them.

Once I was touring in a car with a Commissioner, his wife and some other friends, all Indians. I was anxious to discuss some problems, but the whole time was taken up by the Commissioner's wife and his other friends discussing about the qualities of Ford V 8 and Chevrolet cars—what are their prices, how they function, and all that—and naturally the Commissioner joined them. One hour was spent in the car and I could not discuss anything else! And, this is what they are thinking and talking about in the clubs also, and these are the men who are ruling the country today. Thus we are dragging on without our problems being solved.

Industrialisation and Shortage of Food.—Our food problem is the crying need of the time. We have seen enough of books and placards and heard speeches about the Grow-More-Food campaign, but actual growing of more food is neglected. Even the land that we have under cultivation is being used for the following products—Virginia tobacco, sugarcane, groundnuts, cotton, *etc.* So, on the one side our extensive cultivation is narrowing down, while on the other, intensive cultivation is also being harmed by commercial crops taking its place. And hence there is a food shortage.

At the same time we call for industrialisation. This takes place in a peculiar way. It drives out food from the hungry mouth of our fellow-men in the villages, to such an extent that India has to import 150 crores or thereabouts of food from Brazil and other places because money today from

being merely the medium of exchange has become an end in itself. The result is that people are anxious to make money. Money should be relegated to the place of a means of exchange. But when it becomes symbolic, and is almost synonymous with wealth, then there is great danger.

Why do not the industrialists produce food when food is scarce in the country? It is all because there is a certain quality in money itself which prevents them from doing so. In the very beginning we emphasised the need of considering the value of material things in relation to human beings. When we take money in that relationship it represents different values at different moments in a man's life. Suppose a hungry man gets a four anna bit from me. That four-anna bit has a significance; for with it the man may have his *dal-bhat* which he stands in need of at the time. That is the value of the four-anna bit at that moment. Suppose, after satisfying his hunger the man again comes back to me and asks for another four-anna bit. He now buys some soft drink. The third four-anna bit he spends on pan and betel nut, and the fourth on a cinema show. So all these four-anna bits had different values in relation to the man according to his needs. Such is the nature of money. But this is not Orthodox Economics; it is easily understood by the simplest of human beings. For example, a gentleman travelling in a first-class compartment gets down at a station and calls for a cooly, and another man travelling in a third-class compartment also calls for a cooly. To whom will the cooly run? Certainly to the gentleman who travels first-class. Why? Because he has sufficient superfluous or "cinema show" type of money to spare, which can be easily parted with. Even the cooly understands this aspect of economics. The object of starting any industry

is to make money. The industrialist will choose such an undertaking which will garner in as much money as possible with the least resistance. He will not aim at production of food because at that level the resistance to part with money is greater. If he enters business it will be to cater for people who have accumulated wealth, and not for the poor. Such an economic organisation is not calculated to satisfy the needs of the poor people because of these qualities inherent in money economy.

Some time back, when I was travelling in Malabar I found two little huts under a grove of cocoanut trees. In front of one of the huts I saw an old woman and a potter making pots out of clay. I questioned the woman regarding her diet and discovered that she lived on polished Brazil rice. Gradually, I learnt that a large tract of land round about the hut on which rice used to be grown, belonged to this old woman's parents and it was sold by them to someone for a good offer. The land is now used for growing cocoanuts, which are sold to a factory where they are crushed and their oil is used for the manufacture of toilet soap. Later on I verified the statement of this old woman and I was convinced that these lands had belonged to her parents who had sold them because of good prices offered. Thus the one time rice lands have been turned into toilet-soap lands. Hence we see that the factory does not care to produce the *dal-bhat* of the old woman, but articles of luxury for those people in Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, and other big cities, who have the money of the "cinema value". The more and more we industrialise on this basis the more and more people will starve. It is no wonder that we have to import food to the value of Rs. 150 crores, instead of growing more food in our

own country. When economists are asked, "why is it that this is being done?" they will tell you that it is due to the operation of the "Law of Comparative Advantage."

Such is the economic machinery under which we are working at present and such are the comfortable economic theories fitted into the scheme of things.

We must decrease the use of money and keep it in its proper place, its legitimate place, as our means of exchange. It ceases to be so when people treat it as an end in itself. The money holder has a certain position and power which the fact of his having money gives him.

Then again money equates two wrong things. Hence it ceases to be a truthful means of exchange. Suppose an old woman is selling plantains, and a boy comes to her in the morning and she offers two plantains for one anna. The boy refuses and goes away. The same boy comes in the evening and demands four plantains for one anna. During the heat of the day the plantains have gone soft, and the woman yields. Why? Because the boy, the holder of the comparatively imperishable money has the bargaining power over the holder of perishable commodity—the plantains. So, the moneyholder has got the bargaining power though he is not producing the article, and the people want to get money even at a certain amount of loss, because it places them in that favoured position. Now that Swaraj has come to us we have to assess the right thing in the right place and have our standard of values so adjusted as to enable us to appreciate what is necessary for the people. In a starving nation like ours food, clothes and shelter are necessary and our exchange mechanism should guide us to such supplies.

Electrification.—Our present plans are unrelated to facts. For instance, in the Deccan where a great deal of propaganda is going on to promote the use of Hydro-Electric Power in villages, water is being pumped out by electric pumps. What is the result after three or four years? The once fertile lands are now all barren and the former agriculturists have taken to charcoal making! The rich people who can afford electric motors get water by electric pumps while the poor people do not get it for their fields as their wells and tanks have dried up with the water level going down due to large quantities of water being drawn out by electric pumps. So, with the water level going down the trees which could not draw water beyond their roots have now dried up and are cut down and used for the preparation of charcoal. Cultivation has become impossible as the surface soil has been eroded with the disappearance of trees and bushes.

These schemes cost crores of rupees but none benefit the poor. The present day economic organisation is all for the haves and not for the have-nots. The planning has been done without any relationship to the common people and without any forethought.

Chemical Fertilisers.—The fertiliser factories are another wild goose chase. Fertilisers must be applied like drugs. They are stimulants to the soil and a stimulant should not be applied regularly. When one is weak the doctor prescribes a few drops of brandy, but it cannot be a regular drink. A drunken man is nervously excited and not more energetic. We do not say that fertilisers should not be applied at all. The soil doctors should examine a particular soil which is deficient in certain elements and then prescribe what fertiliser should be applied and in what quantities. Soil ana-

lysis is a prerequisite before fertilisers can be brought in. Soil differs in fertility from yard to yard and each and every square yard has to be examined before applying a particular fertiliser, which is indeed a gigantic task. In our country we have not enough doctors for human beings. It is a folly to introduce fertilisers without maintaining an army of soil doctors. If we apply fertilisers without examining the land it may one day turn into a desert. We have got to remember the conditions prevailing in India when we formulate our economic organisation.

Conclusion.—Economic organisation in a starving country like ours should take the form of production of food and should bear a close relationship to the poor people's needs and the means that are available. In our economic organisation we ought to give the primary place to the starving ones of India, the naked ones of India and people who have no shelter. On that basis we shall have to plan with a standard of human values, not merely with a quantitative sense of material articles we have to produce. An abundance of material wealth is not synony-

mous with human welfare. Welfare has to be construed in terms of the needs of the people.

We should so plan as to meet the needs of the poor people, giving priority of consideration to their food, clothing and housing. After that, if we have surplus energy left, then we can prepare luxury goods. When schemes are being submitted we should follow this approach to evaluate them. At present the economic machinery takes no cognisance of moral values. It is purely material-centred. It is not calculated to ameliorate the sufferings of the masses whose needs do not figure prominently enough in the plan. Such production if encouraged is neither scientific nor well planned. The agriculturists are victims of a wrongly set price-fixing machinery and are facing the evil consequences of malalignments between the development of industries and agriculture, leading to a shortage of food supplies and prime necessities. Until these defects are faced squarely and are set right there is no hope of any advantage being reaped by the villagers from the mere fact of Britishers quitting India.

NEWS AND NOTES

SOCIAL ATTACHES

We are glad to hear of the appointment of Miss Evelyn W. Hersey as social welfare attache to the American Embassy in New Delhi. In this position the attache will be responsible for assisting public and private welfare agencies in the United States in their work overseas and for keeping the State Department informed of social welfare

development in the area she serves. She will also serve as a consultant on any social welfare problems of American citizens or their dependants coming to the Embassy.

It is definitely known that two other countries have made appointments of social attaches to their embassies abroad—the Swiss and the Norwegian Governments.

THE SOCIAL WELFARE FELLOWSHIP PROGRAMME OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The fellowship programme administered by the Division of Social Activities in the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations, originated with the General Assembly resolution 58 (1) of 14 December 1946. This resolution authorised the Secretary-General to include in the 1947 budget the funds necessary for continuing the "urgent and important advisory functions in the fields of social welfare carried by UNRRA", *inter alia* the welfare fellowship programme. Funds were authorized in the first instance only for 1947, so that the United Nations programme was initially a one-year project; but following endorsement of the programme by the Social Commission and the Economic and Social Council, the General Assembly, at its Second Session in 1947 and its Third Session in 1948, respectively, authorised funds for both 1948 and 1949. The records of the Assembly, as well as those of the Social Commission and the Economic and Social Council, indicate general recognition of the value of the relevant services to the recipient countries.

1. *Purpose*.—The United Nations social welfare fellowship programme offers assis-

tance to countries which, in connection with their plans for initiating or further developing social welfare services, would presumably profit from international aid in sending their qualified personnel to other countries for a brief period of concentrated training in the field of social welfare. The governments applying for such assistance are therefore called upon to furnish reasonable assurance that their countries need and will in fact benefit from the opportunities being offered, and that the candidates they propose for training abroad will, upon return to their own countries, assume positions in which any newly acquired knowledge and skills will be used to good purpose.

2. *Scope*.—Under the 1947 programme, against a total of 124 fellowships available, 109 candidates were selected and approved (of whom however, five took up their fellowships so late in 1947 as to make it necessary to include them in the quota for 1948). In 1948, the United Nations received requests for 172 fellowships; 122 were granted. The fellows under the 1947 and 1948 programmes were distributed as follows among the countries concerned;

Recipient country	1947	1948
Albania.....	2*	2*
Austria.....	8	8
Chile.....	—	3
China.....	12	12
Czechoslovakia.....	14	9
Ecuador.....	—	3
Finland.....	6	7
Greece.....	18	8
Haiti.....	—	2
Hungary.....	8	4
India.....	3	12
Italy.....	2	7
Lebanon.....	—	5
Netherlands.....	—	4
Norway.....	—	1
Philippines.....	12	12
Poland.....	11	15
Yugoslavia.....	8	8
Total.....	104	122

3. *Standards of Selection.*—The following criteria were established to guide the various governments in selecting candidates for the 1948 programme:

(a) *Age Qualification:* 25 through 55 years.

(b) *Education and/or Experience Qualification:*

1. evidence of sound academic training and/or sound practical experience in the proposed field of study, or in some field closely related thereto; and

2. evidence that the candidate is either actively engaged full-time in the social welfare services in his country or, upon completion of the fellowship, will be actively engaged full-time in those services.

(c) *Language Qualification:* evidence of ability to read, write and speak a language necessary for carrying out an observation programme in the proposed country of study.

(d) *Personal Qualification:* evidence that (1) the candidate is in good physical health, and (2) he will adapt readily to a brief and concentrated period of study in a foreign country.

4. *Method of Selection.*—Standard United Nations Application forms have been made available to the requesting government, for distribution to interested applicants. The initial selection is made by the governments concerned which subsequently submit a list of candidates, through official channels, to United Nations Headquarters at Lake Success, where the final decision is made with regard to the disposition of each application. Each of the government was urged, in 1948, to establish a committee for the recruitment and selection of qualified applicants, to confine that committee, where possible, to experts within the welfare field, and to make sure that all applications would be reviewed and all applicants interviewed by at least one of the committee's members. Each government was also invited to make use of United Nations representatives, where available, not only to serve as advisers to the committee, but also to interview all applicants.

5. *Administrative Arrangements.*—Administration of the United Nations fellowship programme vests in the Division of Social Activities in the Department of Social Affairs, which acts in this matter through a fellowship office at Headquarters and a regional fellowship office in Geneva. The Headquarters office conducts any necessary negotiations with governments, and evaluates individual applications in the light of the following questions:

(a) Does the proposed area of study fall within the welfare field?

- (b) Are the required study facilities available?
- (c) Can placement in fact be made in the proposed country of study?
- (d) Does the candidate possess the training, the experience, and the language skills necessary for carrying out the observation programme?
- (e) Is there reasonable assurance that the candidate will have an opportunity to use newly acquired knowledge and skills in the development of his country's social welfare programme?

Responsibility for preliminary orientation, for over-all planning of study programmes, for assignment to a particular host country, and for general supervision of each fellow's training is divided between the fellowship staff at Headquarters (for fellows observing in the Western Hemisphere for Australasia) and the fellowship staff in the regional office (for fellows observing in Europe).

6 Fields of Study.—Since the term "social welfare", as employed in a number of countries, embraces education, health, housing, labour, social insurance, social assistance, child welfare, *etc.*, the United Nations has found it necessary to proceed upon a broad definition of the welfare field and, at the same time, to impose certain limits in order to keep the programme viable. For example, "welfare" clearly does not include medical training, but may well include the study of the social aspects of health services; it clearly does not include nutrition as such, but may well include community organization for mass feeding; it clearly does not include all aspects of labour-management relations, but may well include the activities of social workers in industry. The fields of study most in demand in 1947 and 1948 were as

follows: child welfare, public welfare, social insurance, and services for the handicapped, including the manufacture of prosthetics.

7. Placement.—The United Nations, acting in accordance with established international procedures, handles placement of fellows by means of negotiations with the governments of the host countries. At the request of the Division of Social Activities, each government concerned has, in this connection, authorized a particular agency or appointed a special committee to assume responsibility for receiving United Nations fellows and for providing them with study facilities and supervision through the period of training. The practice up to the present time (save in the Benelux States and in the Scandinavian countries, which have for this purpose been regarded as single units) has been to limit fellows to observation in a single country. The Division of Social Activities (directly from Lake Success for fellows observing in the Western Hemisphere, from Geneva for fellows observing in Europe) has thus utilized the welfare facilities of eight countries in 1947 and those of fourteen countries in 1948, as follows:

Host Country	Number of fellows placed in 1947	Number of fellows placed in 1948
Benelux Group (including Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands).....	3	9
Canada.....	2	3
Czechoslovakia.....	2	7
France.....	5	12
Mexico.....	—	2
Scandinavian Group (including Denmark, Norway and Sweden)	9	18
Switzerland.....	9	10
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—		1
United Kingdom.....	24	25
United States.....	50	35
Total.....	104	122

The 1947 placements, with few exceptions, were determined primarily by the express wishes of the requesting governments or of the fellows themselves. Departures were made only in cases where (a) the fellow clearly possessed an inadequate command of the language required for observation in the particular country, or (b) the requested observation facilities were not adequate for the purpose in the country named. In 1948, while the express wishes of the recipient countries and the fellows continued to be given full consideration, final action on placements was withheld pending receipt of assurances from the proposed host country (a) that its quota for the category of training in question had not yet been filled, and (b) that the credentials of the fellow in question were regarded as acceptable from the standpoint of the training requested. In view of the limitations on United Nations funds available for payment of transportation, each fellow was placed, where comparable facilities existed in more than one country, in that country which was closer to his country of origin.

8. *Duration of Fellowship.*—The duration of a United Nations fellowship is not less than three, and not more than six months. Where possible, a study period of six months has been favoured, on the ground that a stay of this length would strike a fair balance between (a) the disadvantages attendant upon the absence of the fellows from their regular positions, and (b) the advantages likely to accrue from a longer, rather than a shorter period of foreign observation. Experience to date appears to indicate that, given efficient planning and wisely selected candidates, six months is not too brief a period for this type of training, although it should be noticed that some reports, both from the host countries

and from the individual fellows themselves, argue in favour of a longer duration. On the other hand, there is some evidence of a preference for a period distinctly shorter than six months, since some countries requesting fellowships for 1948 have indicated that they cannot release the officials concerned for a period longer than three months.

9. *Financial Arrangements.*—Under the 1947 programme, the United Nations provided for the following: transportation to and from the host country; travel within the host country up to a maximum of \$ 50 a month; and a monthly maintenance allowance of \$ 250 to fellows in the United Kingdom and \$ 300 to fellows observing in all other countries.

As a result of a Social Commission recommendation that the recipient countries bear a part of the relevant costs, the financial arrangements for 1949 are quite different. They include:

(a) *Transportation.*—

1. Payment by *recipient countries*, as follows:

(i) All or part of travel expenses to and from the host country that are payable in local currencies;

(ii) Cost of passports and visas.

2. Payment made by the United Nations, as follows:

(i) Such travel costs from a designated point of departure as are not met by the recipient countries;

(ii) Travel costs within the host country up to the following specified maximum amounts:

Host Country	Maximum amount for travel per month.
	\$
Benelux Group (including Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands)	35
Canada.....	75
Czechoslovakia.....	25
France.....	25
Mexico.....	25
Scandinavian Group (including Denmark, Norway and Sweden)....	35
Switzerland.....	25
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	50
United Kingdom.....	35
United States.....	50

(b) *Maintenance:*

1. Payments by the *recipient countries* to fellows' dependents at home.

2. Payments by the *United Nations*, as follows:

Host Country	Monthly Stipend
	\$
Benelux Group	225
Canada.....	250
Czechoslovakia.....	225
France.....	225
Mexico.....	200
Scandinavian Group.....	250
(Denmark.....)	(200)
Switzerland.....	250
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics..	300
United Kingdom.....	250
United States.....	300

(c) *Tuition:*

1. Payment by *recipient countries* and/or *individual fellows* (from United Nations stipends or other sources), as follows:

(i) Cost of language training prior to departure from home country;

(ii) Cost of courses, seminars, or special instruction in relation to study programme in host country.

2. Payment by *United Nations*: none

(d) *Books and Equipment:*

1. Payment by *recipient countries*: none.

2. Payment by *United Nations*: \$ 40 maximum for technical social welfare publications.

(e) *Medical Care:*

1. Payment by *recipient countries* and/or *individual fellows* (from United Nations stipends or other sources) as follows:

(i) Cost of medical examination at point of selection;

(ii) Cost of sickness and accident insurance or any other medical expense incurred in host country.

2. Payment by *United Nations*: none.

(f) *Miscellaneous:*

1. One recipient country provides funds for incidental expenses to supplement United Nations stipends.

2. One recipient country grants the equivalent of the United Nations stipend for one month prior to the fellows' departure, to enable them to concentrate on language study and other preparation for the observation experience.

3. One recipient country grants a clothing allowance to United Nations fellows prior to their departure for the host country.

4. One recipient country grants the equivalent of the United Nations stipends for one month after the fellows' return to enable them to prepare reports, write articles, and give lectures on their foreign experience.

10. *Reports.*—Each fellow is required to prepare regular monthly reports and, upon termination of the fellowship, a comprehen-

sive final report. Fellows on programmes of more than four months' duration are also required to prepare mid-term reports. These reports are presented to the fellow's supervisors in the host country and copies are forwarded to the appropriate United Nations fellowship office. Experience indicates that the necessity of preparing monthly reports causes the fellow to rethink what he is doing, and thus makes for clarity of purpose. They are also of great use to the supervisor in continuous planning of the study programme. The mid-term and final reports integrate the entire observation experience, analyze critically the training programme in relation to the purpose it was intended to serve, and set forth specific suggestions as to how the new knowledge and techniques can be put to use in the fellow's

country. The mid-term and final reports are transmitted to the fellows' own governments, together with an evaluation of their work by the supervisors in the host countries and by the appropriate United Nations fellowship officer. In order to determine the long-term value of an international welfare fellowship programme, the United Nations (a) has requested all fellows to submit reports over a two-year period following their return to their own countries, and (b) has invited the recipient governments to keep the Secretary-General informed as to the contributions made by returned fellows to national social welfare programmes.

(Extract taken from the Report on the United Nations International Fellowships).

NEW DEAL FOR UNTOUCHABLES

Article 11 penalising untouchability will be a more precious Bill of rights than all other rights of equality guaranteed under the Constitution. For all these other rights would have remained worthless if untouchability, and all the vile practices associated with it, had remained. Adult franchise alone would not have given the untouchables their citizenship rights if the infamy of enforced segregation for them in public places—in streets, at wells, in schools and in places of worship had continued, if a *cordon sanitaire* had continued to be drawn round every village with a ghetto for the untouchables, and if the label of "pariah" had continued to suggest defilement. Article 11 guarantees that no such enforced segregation will be possible in future and that no class of people will be treated, as an entity beyond human intercourse whose mere touch causes pollution.

It will be a mistake, however, to think that with the adoption of this Article the fight against untouchability can be called off. On the contrary, the war on untouchability has to be carried on with more determination than before if the Article is to reflect national policy. Untouchability will not disappear merely by throwing open all the roads, schools, wells and temples to Harijans. There are many more insidious forms of untouchability than are seen in public places, which must be eliminated. The very idea that the mere shadow or touch of a human being can cause pollution must be destroyed. The Article will become meaningless if the law to enforce it lays down a complicated and expensive procedure before the guilty can be tried and punished, or if the responsibility for initiating proceedings is left to the victims, who in almost every case will have neither

the time nor the resources to go to court. Not only must an expeditious procedure be devised, but deterrent sentences must also be awarded and the Government themselves must take the whole responsibility for launching proceedings against those guilty of the offence. But even legislation by itself cannot wipe the abomination of untouchability. The evil also has economic roots. It is not just coincidence that the "pariahs" are not only social outcasts but also the poorest section of the community.

Whatever the origin of untouchability—whether it has anything to do with the so-called unclean occupations or not—none can deny that the wretched economic state of the untouchables makes the perpetuation of the evil ways. The State must, therefore, assume the responsibility not only for their civic rehabilitation but for their economic rehabilitation as well.

—A digest from *The Indian News Chronicle*,
By Indian Ink, January, 1949.

U. S. SCIENTISTS DEVISE DEFORMITY CORRECTOR

Children whose legs have been deformed by infantile paralysis or other causes may be helped to walk more normally by stainless steel staples driven into leg bones to control their growth, two United States scientists report. One use of the staples is to equalize the length of the legs. The staples also are said to have helped correct cases of knock-knee and bowleg.

The procedure has been used at the Children's Hospital in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, where it was devised. Drs. Walter P. Blount and George R. Clarke of Milwaukee demonstrated the method before 2,000 surgeons during the recent annual meeting of the American Academy of Orthopedic Surgeons, a professional organization.

"The child must be treated while he still has two years to grow," Blount points out. "The method can be used in children as young as eight years."

Made of stainless steel, which has great strength and resists corrosion, the staples are less than an inch long. Through a small incision, they are driven into the bone, bridging the growth zone. Blount explains that this "mechanically stops the leg from lengthening at one or several levels of growth."

The child may return to school after a few days, but he is closely watched and X-rays are taken at intervals to measure the length of the bones.

"When the desired correction is obtained," he says, "the staples are withdrawn and normal growth is resumed."

For a knock-kneed child, the staples are placed on the inner side of the knee; for a bowlegged one, on the outer side. The back-knee deformity caused by infantile paralysis and the bent-knee following arthritis or injury are corrected in a corresponding manner.

"READER" FOR THE BLIND

An electronic device that translates printed letters into sound, permitting blind persons to "read" newspapers and books by ear, is being

developed in the United States. The machine, developed by the Radio Corporation of America Laboratories in Princeton, New Jersey, was demonstrated for the first

time during a recent meeting of the New York Electrical Society, an organization of electrical engineers.

L. E. Flory and W. S. Pike, RCA engineers who developed the complicated apparatus, explain that it consists of a scanning unit, a selector (or "electronic brain"), and a loudspeaker.

As the scanning device is moved along a line of type, a miniature cathode-ray tube explores each letter with eight spots of light arranged in a vertical line. When the spot of light passes over any black portion of a letter, an impulse is sent to the selector

unit. There the impulses are counted electronically, and after the letter has been completely scanned, the total number of impulses is noted by the selector unit. This number, which is different for each letter, actuates a magnetic tape on which the letter has been recorded in a man's voice. The voice, pronouncing the letter, is then heard through the loudspeaker.

The present apparatus is large, complicated and costly. The inventors emphasize that much more research is necessary before the machine can be adopted for general use.

THE FOURTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT, WELFARE DEPARTMENT, CENTURY MILLS, BOMBAY.

The Welfare Department of the Century Mills, Bombay, has brought out its report for the year ending 31st December, 1948. It discusses the various activities organised for the benefit of the workers both men and women and their children. Such activities fall under the following heads:

The Employee Cooperative Credit Society.—This society proved its utility by shaking off the debt burdens of its members and encouraging savings.

Education.—Night classes in Marathi, Telugu and Hindi and day classes in Telugu are conducted and the workers are examined by the Adult Literary Committee.

Entertainment and Recreation.—There is a Library and Reading Room, a Women's Club and Nursing Class. Other activities

include akhadas, scouting and Safety First instruction.

The Grain Shops and the Canteen are made use of by nearly all the employees. The Medical Department functions creditably and the creche is becoming more and more popular. Mothers are given instructions in pre-natal and post-natal care.

Spiritual Activities.—Marathi, Telugu and Hindi Scripture night classes continue to make good progress. Religious festivals are celebrated in the chawls.

Sanitation.—The chawls are regularly visited by the Health Visitor, Lady Instructor and the Medical Officer.

The Welfare Officer supervises all these activities, which are manifold and of great benefit to the employees.

U. N. TEACHING PROJECT.

A group of 90 public school teachers has been selected to study and devise ways of teaching the structure and objectives of the United Nations to school children in

New York City. The project is sponsored by the city's board of education and the United Nations. Similar groups, under similarly co-operative auspices, are being

formed in Paris, London and Mexico City. Eventually, the teaching programs worked out by the groups will be gathered together

by the U. N. Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation for distribution to teachers all over the world.

RECREATION FOR OLD PEOPLE

At present, society's relationship, or lack of it, with the older person seems to be geared towards his final disintegration and inevitable institutionalization. The Hodson Centre was organized in an attempt to reduce the need for institutionalization and the adjustment of the older person in his normal environment. It was hoped to lessen the period of dependency, to make possible the continued usefulness, dignity and self-respect of the unwanted, complaining, ill at ease and continually larger group of older persons in our society—a society that did not recognize the tremendous wealth of human resources in the community.

It was difficult to conceive their neglect. Here were people with skills, community knowledge and understanding, and wisdom that only years could give, and society desperately in need of these assets and of their leisure time to help with community programmes and planning, instead of utilizing this tremendous human resource was actually turning it into a liability.

The Hodson Centre was introduced as a social club where the older persons could come and talk, play cards, read newspapers, or listen to the radio, have tea, coffee, and cake each day. These activities, and quiet games, such as chess, checkers and dominoes are always available. For the older person with marked physical limitations, they are suitable, relaxing activities. For the person new to the Centre, they are an opportunity to meet one or two other persons and to begin some social contacts,

160 people now come to the Centre daily. The forms of expression are as varied as the people who come. An editorial board of 12 members writes and mimeographs a magazine once a month. Contributions come from 75 other members. An interesting group meet in bi-weekly poetry reading sessions, to which members also contribute original verse. Some participate in an English and Citizenship class, some sketch and paint in an art class, some build household furniture in a carpentry class. They refurbish toys for hospitals and nurseries, make utility bags and recreational puzzles for a Vetcran's Hospital, speak their minds at lectures about national and international problems, and hold discussions on the physical and psychological difficulties of older people, on the cultural contributions of their varying national backgrounds, and on the meaning of the traditions of religious holidays, whether they be Jewish, Catholic or Protestant, which they respectively celebrate together. They are forgetting in activity the aches and pains for which they wanted the doctor's sympathy and attention so badly that they clogged the city clinics with them. They are forgetting even to find fault with their landladies. In short, they are regaining their strength as human beings.

They have found acceptance and friendship at the Centre. Once a month they hold birthday parties for all members whose birthdays fall within that month. For some of the members it is a first party, and for more of them the cards they receive from their fellow members are the first birthday

greetings they have received since they were children. They sing for each other at the parties and those members who are musically trained play on the Centre's piano or violin. They go out together on all day boat rides or excursions to places of interest in New York City. And when they are sick they visit and help each other. One of the most delightful poems written in the Hodson Centre is an appreciation of the people who visited the writer when he was not well. There were three marriages in the last year and I'm certain they will not increase the divorce rate.

Jews, Catholic and Protestant, native and foreign born, Negro and white, live in a community of their own making. Here they really get a feeling of acceptance, of belonging, and of the dignity of man, furthered by their development of self-governing machinery. They elect their own officers, delegate responsibility to their committee, and look less and less to the professional workers to meet their needs or to give them ideas. They have become independent spirits, with a respect for their own personality and a desire to be adequate functioning citizens. We have wrought no minor miracles. We have worked with people who have a lessening of physical energy, a separation, physical or emotional, from family and friends, and a loss of occupation. These are changes which need not be confusing or destructive. Areas of adequacy and superiority do not arbitrarily cease to exist after the 65th birthday. We have used our understanding to give security in these areas. We have employed our skills to enable the older person to make a more positive use of himself. We have worked in the direction of making it possible for the older person to relate himself to people and to events.

We have developed some simple understandings in our work with older people.

Activity is the most important part of our programme. We find that activity does not need to be manual. Mental activity, interest in music, even cards and checkers, have meaning and importance in developing a sense of security and belonging. We start with simple things that can be finished easily, that cost little and that usually free the person from resistance against participation. At no time should activity become a task for him. Activity should give pleasure and a feeling of accomplishment and of superiority wherever possible.

We have five such Centres in various parts of the City. We hope to open at least four more in the next six months. A sixth Centre, associated with us in the programme, is sponsored and supported by the National Council of Jewish Women on a completely non-sectarian basis. The National Council is encouraging its chapters throughout the country to develop a day-care programme for the older person. Settlements throughout New York City are opening their doors to older people either through clubs or centres on a one or two day basis, planning eventually to develop these into full time programmes.

Interest in New York City's Centre programme has been evinced all over the country and even outside of the country. Letters of inquiry have come to us from Canada, England, Australia and France. The Deputy Mayor of Prague visited one of our Centres recently and expressed the hope that similar Centres would be developed in her city. Each Centre programme that is developed represents so much saving in taxes for the citizens of a community. The increasing number of inadequate older people means a proportionate increase in the number of custodial institutions needed for their care. And every older person who breaks down in mental health serves to crowd our hospitals, making less service

available to the person who needs it. Every Centre that we open provides a psychologically healthy outlet for the rejected, unwanted older citizen, so many of whom we see being influenced by questionable groups and "crackpot" organizations. For this reason alone we should become interested in developing a Centre programme for the older person.

An older person who feels again that he has human worth can make a tremendous contribution to the life of the community—to the work of the churches, settlement houses, social and charitable organizations.

He has skills and he has the very precious asset of leisure time. On a cultural level he can contribute to the fields of art, of literature, of music. On a social level he has a lifetime of wisdom and experience to offer those around him. The essential function of a Centre for older people is to reorientate the older person in our society, to restore to him his human dignity, enabling him to relate himself to people and events and to a positive use of himself as an integral part of his time.

—*Paper by Harry Levine of the Hodson Centre, New York City.*

THE SOCIETY FOR THE REHABILITATION OF DISABLED AND CRIPPLED CHILDREN

The Society has brought out its Report of the work done by the Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation Centre during the period July 1947 to July 1948. The Clinic is run on scientific lines and is staffed by ex-Army Physiotherapists who work under the supervision of a panel of eminent physicians and surgeons who have offered their services in an honorary capacity. Moreover, a team of honorary workers helps to supervise and conduct the day-to-day work of the Centre.

The Clinic admits children of all communities and classes and the fees range from As. 4/- to Rs. 5/- per treatment, whilst transportation is provided at a small cost. Their chief source of income has been public subscriptions and donations, but now the Government of India have sanctioned a building grant of Rs. 33,333/-. The grant is conditioned upon their obtaining a similar amount from the Government of Bombay and a similar sum from the public of Bombay during the year 1948.

The Society has formed a two-year plan, as follows:—

- (a) The establishing of a children's orthopaedic hospital on the most modern and progressive lines.
- (b) The organising of a teaching institution for the supply of trained technicians for all orthopaedic treatments.
- (c) The establishing of an orthopaedic workshop.
- (d) The setting up of a research institution for the combating and prevention of the spread of Poliomyelitis.
- (e) The maintaining of a school for crippled children.

WORLD-WIDE FOOD AND HEALTH CAMPAIGN PLANNED

The United Nations and eight of its specialized agencies are developing a campaign to improve food supplies and health throughout the world this year. Officials say that "hunger makes millions an easy prey to disease, and disease in turn prevents them from producing food enough to meet their needs."

The United Nations agencies, co-operating with the governments of member states, intend to fight illnesses that weaken farm workers and farm animals, to improve the distribution of food and farm labour, to seek ways to pay for agricultural development programs, and to direct public attention to the whole problem through an educational campaign.

The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) are planning an attack on malaria. A WHO report declares that malaria strikes 300,000,000 persons each year and kills 3,000,000. The average attack, even though it is not fatal, reduces the victim's efficiency to 15 percent of normal for 30 days. In farming areas, malaria thus cuts food production.

But, WHO officials point out, mankind now has a cheap, effective weapon against malaria—DDT. During a 3-year program in Greece, DDT spraying cut out the annual rate of new malaria cases from 1,000,000 to fewer than 50,000 and saved an estimated 30,000,000 man-days a year. The cost was about 30 cents per capita.

Together, the three agencies are studying areas where malaria control would increase food production. They will train local personnel in the use of DDT, spraying machines and jeeps. The agencies also will urge increased facilities for the production

of DDT in malaria areas. Measures to control other diseases that curtail food production also are being studied.

Co-ordinated attacks on the farm manpower problem—which is complicated by the fact that some areas have a shortage of workers while others have a surplus—are being made by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the FAO. They hope to speed up the training of farm workers, to develop incentives for men and women to enter agricultural employment, and to bring about "an orderly migration of workers and their families to the area where they are needed."

Ways are being sought to help hard-pressed nations pay for desired farm improvements. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development has raised potential food production in Mexico through loans for electric power and irrigating projects. A loan to Chile included funds for modern agricultural machinery. Bank missions sent recently to India, Turkey, Peru and Colombia are studying economic development programs that include proposed irrigation projects and increased use of farm machinery.

To improve food distribution, the FAO is studying intergovernmental commodity agreements and their role in stabilizing supplies, market conditions and prices. The International Trade Organization, the International Monetary Fund and other organizations are also working on this.

To arouse public interest throughout the world, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) will, in co-operation with FAO, sponsor a major information campaign entitled "Food and People." Pamphlets and other materials will be prepared for use by newspapers, films and radio programs.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL IN AMERICAN EDUCATION TODAY

Nursery schools in the United States had their beginnings mainly between 1918 and 1930. Some of the first schools concerned with important aspects of growth of children under five were organized at Boston, Massachusetts, Teachers College of Columbia University and the Bank Street School in New York City, and the University of Iowa. The Merrill-Palmer School which opened in 1921 in Detroit, Michigan, included a nursery school in its program. Laura Spellman Rockefeller funds for child development centers gave impetus to the establishment of additional nursery schools, especially in American colleges and universities. By 1930 the number of nursery schools reported to the United States Office of Education was 262, whereas the number reported in 1920 was three.

In the years 1930 to 1946 there was an increase of public and private nursery schools. Furthermore, very rapid increases took place when Federal subsidy was provided. In July 1945, approximately 60,000 children, whose mothers were employed were enrolled in nursery schools receiving Federal funds. With the end of the war, many of these were closed. That nursery school education had met with public approval, however, was shown in 1946 by the fact that there were more parents interested in enrolling their children in good nursery schools than there were facilities available.

Any American educational group must help American children learn to live in a democratic culture. The nursery school has a particularly important role to play in achieving this purpose, since it offers children their earliest opportunity outside of the home to live with a group of contemporaries and thus to develop attitudes

towards themselves and others that may be basic to their learning to live. The nursery school works with parents to supplement and enrich the child's development.

The very keynote of democracy, respect for individuality, is also the keystone of a good nursery program. At very few educational levels are the needs of individuals and the ways of meeting them as well synchronized as they are in the good nursery school.

In the physical equipment of the nursery, everything is scaled to the child's size and abilities so that he may carry out his activities in his own way without fear of failure. He is in a situation where other children perform at about his level and where teachers know him as an individual. Sympathetic teachers provide ways and means for him to express himself. In all these ways and many others, his individuality is respected.

Since a democratic culture must of necessity be made up of thinking individuals, a second responsibility of our education is to stimulate independent, fearless, creative thinking. That the nursery school may be effective in stimulating thinking in young children is indicated by the results of research. While the findings of various studies are not in harmony regarding the amount of influence the nursery school exerts on intellectual growth, in general they do indicate that attendance in a good nursery school results in some gain in the ability measured by intelligence tests.

Another characteristic of the democratic group is its emphasis on co-operative effort in making decisions and solving problems.

Here again nursery education lays the groundwork of social attitudes which make this effort possible.

In a pre-school group the child spends his time with others who have needs and desires strikingly similar to his own. Furthermore, they express these needs and desires at the same time and in the same way that he does. Here, then, is a rare opportunity for him to learn the importance of the other fellows; to learn to share with him; to learn to live in a group that is different in structure from the family group. Here, too, the child learns to accept other forms of authority, perhaps different from those he finds in his family. The teacher is not his mother, yet she does represent authority; the group exerts its authority too. An only child may never have had to share materials with anyone at home. In the nursery school where there are many children and a limited amount of equipment, he soon discovers that the group expects him to share these materials. Thus his concept of authority broadens; he becomes less dependent on his home. He learns to think and to work with others.

Consistently, research workers concerned with determining the influence of nursery school attendance on social behaviour have found that children who have "lived" in a group of their contemporaries under the guidance of trained teachers for at least several months have increased their social contacts and have steadily become less solitary and hesitant to enter the group. At the same time that they have learned to

become a part of the group, they have learned to be independent individuals. Several studies show that with attendance in a good nursery school comes an increase in self-assertiveness, independence and self-control. Thus the child seems to benefit in two important ways—in maintaining his individuality within a group and becoming part of that group.

In the world today, co-operative efforts need to extend far beyond the confines of one's own culture. It is essential that children learn to respect and understand not only individuals within their own cultural group, but those in others as well.

To the extent that the nursery school group is composed of children who differ in nationality, race, religion, and home background and to the extent that teacher guidance helps children to understand these differences, the nursery may become a potent influence in developing attitudes and behaviour that will make for sound relationships among all peoples. Peoples who, although they come from different cultural groups, have learnt to live and work and play together as children are less likely to be susceptible to propaganda which emphasizes group differences in an attempt to pit members of these groups against each other. It remains for future research workers to tell us how effective the nursery school may be as an intercultural agency in our society.

By Gertrude E. Chittenden, Margaret Nesbitt, and Betsey Williams, from "Understanding the Child".

PROGRESS IN SOCIAL SERVICE

The world's only international social-service program, administered by the United Nations Division of Social Activities, is expected to assist some 30 countries this year

in re-building or developing their social-welfare functions. This non-political social-service program of the U. N. is now in its third year of operation. Eighteen coun-

tries received assistance in 1948, while 17 nations were helped during 1947.

The types of service provided include: aid from highly qualified consultants; fellowships for study abroad awarded to qualified welfare experts; equipment and supplies for demonstration of devices for the disabled; technical assistance through films and publications, and regional seminars for the exchange of information and ideas.

Fourteen countries already have requested consultant service in 1949. Under this program, the U. N. sends an expert to the country asking aid. There he studies local welfare problems, makes recommendations to the government, and shares his specialized knowledge by working through advisory committees, giving demonstrations and teaching classes.

Social-Welfare Fellowships.—At least 155 advanced students from 30 countries will receive U. N. social-welfare fellowships in 1949. These people, who already hold posts in social-welfare agencies in their own countries and are well qualified for further study, are provided travel, living and other expenses for three-to-six months' observation and training abroad. In the last two years, 226 such experts from 18 countries have studied in 14 different nations.

Models of books and tools for use of the blind, simple weaving machinery for occupational therapy programs, and artificial limbs are among the demonstration materials U. N. sends to requesting countries to help restore handicapped persons to a productive life. Eight countries received such equipment in 1948, seven countries already have asked for this service in 1949.

Another U. N. service is sending technical literature to aid countries in training social-welfare experts. U. N. social-welfare fellows and consultants help set up social-welfare libraries in government ministries. The U. N. also is making in eight languages its film "First Steps", which deals with the rehabilitation of handicapped children. India, which suggested this film, has received United Nations help in producing three films of its own on social-welfare programs.

Four regional seminars are planned by the U. N. in 1949. They will be held in Europe, the Far East, Latin America and the Middle East. Directed by U. N. experts, these seminars bring together leading social-welfare representatives of participating countries to discuss regional problems and to learn new techniques.

HEALTH ON WHEELS

Life among the chickens may seem funny when experienced in an armchair through the eyes of the author of "The Egg and I" but a little re-reading reveals the sheer hard work and loneliness of country life behind the humorous facade. Loneliness in the country can become so oppressive that, as Mrs. MacDonald says, you would swoon

with anticipation at the prospect of any visitor.

How welcome to the women of inland Australia living in conditions similar to those of Mrs. MacDonald must be the visit of the travelling infant welfare sisters. These women employed in some cases by the State Governments and in some cases by

voluntary social agencies travel about the inland areas bringing not only help and advice to country women with young children but also company and encouragement to many women in the areas visited.

Over seven hundred baby health centres provide help and advice to city mothers and the travelling infant welfare sisters attempt to make a similar service available to country women. While the country mother cannot call around and ask the infant welfare sisters for advice, she can at least save up her problems until the sister's next visit in a week or so.

There are really three distinct types of travelling baby health services: those provided by means of baby health railway cars or caravans; those in which a sister travels round a circuit by whatever transport is available; and those advisory services which are conveyed by the postman—correspondence advice.

Baby health railway cars and caravans are compact units containing everything needed to set up a baby health clinic to advise mothers on their own babies' health. They provide every possible comfort and convenience not only for the visiting mothers and babies but for the infant welfare sisters who use them as an office by day and a bed-sitting room at night.

These railway cars and caravans are generally stationed at inland country towns from which they travel about the neighbouring countryside. Baby-health caravans have a certain advantage over railway cars as they enable the sister to visit not only the main centres in the district, but also isolated homesteads en route. Baby health rail cars being attached to ordinary trains are obviously only able to stop at recognised stations and sidings and must depend on mothers needing advice being able to reach them at these points.

One trained sister working alone or in conjunction with a local citizens' committee is generally all that is necessary to staff these cars and caravans. At first sight, the life of these sisters appears to be a lonely one, but the warm greeting which they receive wherever they pull up is compensation enough for the loneliness of travelling. In the remoter parts, where the sisters act as mailmen as well as infant nurses, their welcome is doubly warm. Baby health railway cars or caravans operate in four states, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Queensland. The benefit which they bring to mothers and children in outback areas of these States can be judged by the fact that over 2000 babies and children were helped during 1945-6 by the Victorian baby health caravans alone and over 15,000 individual visits were made to the caravans.

Baby health trains and caravans moving about the country vary in the regularity with which they visit centres and homes on their route. When their circuits are not very large they may make visits as often as once every fortnight, but in other cases the visits of the infant welfare sister may be as much as six weeks apart.

Many country areas are unsuitable for the operation of baby health railway cars and caravans because of lack of suitable sidings, bad roads, and the small number of residents or because of the expense involved. In many such areas, however, a travelling welfare infant sister operates a baby health centre circuit. Like the railway cars and caravans the travelling infant welfare sister has her headquarters at a central outback town and visits surrounding districts. Her transport may be a car, if the circuit is prosperous enough to run such a vehicle, it may be by local trains, or in some areas it may be a case of taking almost any

vehicle which moves in a forward direction. The travelling sister sets up a baby health clinic in some central building in the districts she visits; often it is the bush nursing centre, the Country Women's Association or Mechanics' Hall.

A local committee is generally formed at each place which the sister visits and this committee sees not only to the maintenance of the centre's equipment but also provides the voluntary helpers and part of the money needed to finance the circuit. The sisters visit all kinds of places as they move about their circuits—mining settlements, the bark-strip humpies of sleeper cutters and one sister visits a station which prides itself on having run cattle for a hundred and two years—something of a record in Australia.

By means of these mobile infant welfare services very many mothers living in inland areas are helped and advised but there are still many families living in very isolated parts who cannot be reached by such services. For the mothers of such families, Australia has developed correspondence infant welfare services. These attempt as far as possible to give country mothers by means of letters the help and advice that would ordinarily be given by the travelling sister.

They provide two series of letters—one for expectant mothers and one for mothers with young babies. The first series provides letters advising expectant mothers how best to ensure their own and their babies' health and guide the mother in preparation

for her confinement. The second series of letters is very full and helps the mother to understand normal child development and gives her information which will enable her to train and manage her child so that he will grow up strong and well. In both series, letters are generally sent to the mother at monthly intervals.

There are, of course, many problems on which mothers want individual advice and all the correspondence services encourage mothers to make enquiries concerning individual problems confronting them.

The mobile and correspondence infant welfare services like the ordinary infant welfare services are not equipped to help sick babies or toddlers and do not usurp the function of the doctor in treating illness. The function of the baby health services, whether on fixed foundations or on wheels is to give advice concerning the health of mothers and babies, the management and feeding of babies and toddlers and their regular weighing.

Perhaps one of the most amazing things about the infant welfare services is that no charge whatever is made for the advice and help given. These free services ensure that expert advice and help are available to every mother in Australia whatever the income of her husband and are in no small measure responsible for the reduction by over twenty per thousand in the infant mortality rate in Australia in the past twenty-five years.

—*Social Services Journal*, Vol. 2, No.1, February, 1949.

A MILE-STONE REACHED IN THE MARCH OF LABOUR LEGISLATION IN MYSORE. PROVISIONS OF THE MINIMUM WAGES BILL EXPLAINED

In the march of labour legislation, Mysore has reached a mile-stone by the passing of the Minimum Wages Bill by

the Legislative Council. The Bill, though generally modelled on the lines of the Indian Act, has a few more progressive features.

Under the provisions of the Bill, the Government fixes the minimum wages payable to employees in all the schedule employments. There are two schedules attached to the Bill comprising various industries such as, textile, sugar, paper and rice mill, plantations wherein cinchona, rubber, tea or coffee are grown, road construction or building operations and mining or metallurgical operations and agriculture, etc. Power is taken by the Government to add to the schedule other employments. The Bill provides for fixing the minimum rates of wages by the Government at intervals not exceeding five years.

Work of Advisory Committees.—It also provides for the constitution of advisory committees for the purposes of revising the minimum rates of wages and work loads and an advisory board for the purposes of co-ordinating the work of the Committees. Consultation with these bodies is obligatory on all occasions of revision. These advisory bodies would be composed of representatives of employers and employees in equal numbers and also independent members not exceeding one-third of the total number of members, one of whom would be appointed as Chairman.

Double Advantage.—There is every reason to expect that this piece of legislation will confer a double advantage: the employer could be sure of adequate work for wages paid whereas the employee would be certain of getting his due wages for work done. The provision with regard to the minimum wages will be enforced by a staff of Inspec-

tors. Certain penalties are provided for infringements. An employer who pays less than the minimum wage fixed will have not only to pay the balance with compensation which will be covered under a summary procedure laid down for the purpose but will also become liable to be prosecuted.

A Distinct Improvement.—A Select Committee having been appointed to scrutinise the Bill at the last Session of the Legislative Council and its report having been received, further stages of the Bill were proceeded with at the present Session. There are certain respects in which Mysore has gone a step further than the Central Government. Whereas under the Indian Act the benefit under the Act accrues to such of the industries only as have on their rolls not less than 1000 workers, this minimum is fixed at 300 in Mysore. Again, the Mysore Bill, as amended by the Select Committee, provides that, where a Committee recommends minimum wages, such recommendations may also be published in the official Gazette and public opinion invited before final orders are passed. This is manifestly a distinct improvement on the original bill. Government hope that this salutary measure in the light of which needful action will be taken early will bring about a happy relationship between capital and labour and result in increased and improved production.

—*Mysore Information Bulletin, Vol. XII.*
No.1, January 31, 1949.

POVERTY AND POPULATION

Rapid growths in population have outstripped limited gains towards a better economy. Improved health and sanitation, by lengthening the life-span, directly con-

tribute towards a further depression in living standards. This does not mean a perpetuation of insanitary conditions and ill health; better health and sanitation are

absolutely essential to control the wastage of human resources and to relieve human suffering. Contemplating the rate at which population has been growing in India—was 10 per cent in the decennial period of 1921 to 1931 and 15 in the period 1931 to 1941—and the difficulty in stepping up of production of food-stuffs and other necessities of life to the increase of population, one is apt to give way to pessimism about our ever being able to give our people a reasonable standard of living. One has to remember that in a vast country like India, problems which in smaller countries are capable of being dealt with easily appear formidable because of the immensity of the numbers involved. There can be no doubt that it will be very difficult for us to think of raising the standard of living of our people merely by increasing production yields of industry and agriculture. Side by side with comprehensive schemes of planning for agricultural and industrial development, we must adopt means for restricting the increase in population.

The fact that the growth of population is in inverse ratio to the improvement in living standards is a factor which will work in our favour by restoring balance between means of production and the number of people which these are to sustain, provided we forge ahead with our plans. Where a people, living on the border-line of starvation as we are, is concerned, our development plans must be drawn up in such a way that priority is given to schemes for increased production of food, cloth and housing. The establishment of luxury industries, and even industries which may be considered essential in advanced countries must be postponed till such time as we can ensure for our people some of their barest wants. Food production should be

increased both by extending the area of cultivation and by following intensive methods of cultivation. By increasing the production of protective food like milk and milk products, we can do a great deal to improve the nutritional standard of the people's diet. There can be increase in the per capita consumption of cloth by extension of large-scale production in textile mills and by systematic development of the handloom industry. The housing problem in this country, especially in the rural areas, is not one of erecting huge structures in steel and concrete but the reconstruction of our villages in such a way that the rural population can live in commodious and well-ventilated houses providing for the minimum needs of sanitation. If Indian engineers concentrate on the erection of cheap durable houses with materials locally available and local authorities exploit local man-power during the agricultural off season, the problem will cease to be the immense one which a study of all-India figures would make it appear.

As regards family limitation, the methods followed in the West are not easily adoptable in this country both because of the cost involved and the conditions in which the masses of our people live. By legislation and the process of education it is, however, possible to raise the marriageable age still further, abolish polygamy, space the birth of children and limit the number of children. Even as regards the adoption of contraceptive methods, the Population Sub-committee of the National Planning Committee has recommended the inclusion in all medical colleges in India of courses on contraception, the training of some women doctors and nurses all over India in this regard, the establishment of birth control clinics where supplies should be free, especially in connection with maternity,

welfare centres, health units and hospitals, and the encouragement of local manufacture of contraceptive goods in order to bring the cost within the reach of the masses.

—A digest from *The Hindustan Times* By *Indian Ink*. January, 1949.

CARE OF MOTHER AND CHILD IN POLAND

Under the above heading welfare programs will be discussed which centre around the mother and her children below the age of three. As was explained in the introduction, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare is responsible for these programs. Forms of public assistance given to working women under the social legislation and insurance system have already been described in a previous release.¹

Partial Aid.—The so-called “mother and child” stations, organized in the main by local government and voluntary agencies, belong in this category.

Their functions are:

1. to give advice to pregnant and nursing women;
2. to give advice on child care below the age of three;
3. to educate women in healthy methods of child care; and
4. to grant medical help—money allowances, clothing, vitamins, etc.

There are now 1200 stations of this type in Poland and they service 220,000 mothers and children yearly.

Partial aid also embraces several types of nurseries throughout Poland. Factory nurseries exist in Poland as part of the social legislation system. The law requires

that factories employing 100 or more women maintain nurseries. Trade unions and other organizations encourage the formation of nurseries also in enterprises employing 10-100 women workers. The latter nurseries also accept children of mothers not employed in the given enterprise in accordance with the number of empty places available.

In addition, there are municipal nurseries and nurseries operated by various social and religious organizations. The municipal nurseries, which usually maintain good facilities, serve three daily meals to the children, and this alone is a source of great relief for parents. In spite of these advantages, it must however be emphasized that there is still a great shortage of nurseries, and this is why children of working mothers receive preferred admittance.

It is important to note here that an altogether new type of nursery has recently been introduced in Poland. This is the “weekly nursery” where a child may remain under supervision during the week and return to its parents only on week-ends. Preference is given in these nurseries to children who either have one parent missing or whose families have extremely poor housing facilities.

Seasonal nurseries in rural areas have now been introduced as part of the Polish government's plan to raise rural welfare

¹ “Social Legislation in Poland”, Polish Research and Information Service.

facilities on a par with urban. However, there is a severe need for a far greater number of this particular type of service. The full realization of the goal—that every village have a nursery—is expected to go hand in hand with the mechanization and cultural progress of the village.

One of the new and rewarding features of the partial care program in Poland is the setting apart of special rooms in railroad stations for the convenience of pregnant women and women with small children. As a mother waits for her train she is able to care for her child and to prepare his food. She may also leave the child with the attendant while she takes care of shopping or other matters. Up to the present, sixty-three railroad stations have installed such rooms which serve an average of 12,600 mothers and 25,500 children per month. The railroads have also provided reserved compartments on trains for pregnant women and women with small children.

Full Aid.—Orphans, neglected children, abandoned children from unhealthy, immoral homes are provided for under the full care provision programs, and this care is made available through foster families and special homes. Care of children up to three years of age and older children is almost similar in the foster homes. A child is placed with the most suitable family which has been chosen from among several applicants. After the agency entrusts the child to full care by the selected family it still maintains a supervisory status.

Special homes for children up to the age of three are known as "Homes for Small Children." The pre-war designation, "orphanage," has been discontinued. Orphans and abandoned children form most of the population in this type of homes

although there are some children among them from very poor homes. In 1947, ninety-two "Homes for Small Children" housed over 4000 children.

However, there is a growing tendency to aid poor children through their own families and help of this type has been made available through the "Mother and Child" stations and community welfare authorities.

Also, under the same plan, residence for abandoned mothers or mothers with no source of support have been introduced in Poland after the war. These are known as "Homes for Mothers and Children". Great emphasis is placed here on vocational and professional training which will eventually make the mothers self-supporting and to this end, work shops and courses are established within the residences. The home also co-operates with the Government Employment Office to secure work for the mothers.

A new form of assistance to mothers and children has been recently introduced. This plan provides rest homes for mothers who are worn out with household chores. It has been observed that overworked housewives, given a month or more in a different atmosphere, often gain new strength, and are able to return to their homes with not only increased vitality, but further knowledge of how to run their homes more efficiently.

Today in Poland there are 128 Homes for Mothers and Children. Twenty-two of these are run by state authorities, fifty-two by local government, twenty-two by social service organizations, nine by religious associations and three by foundations.

Before a needy mother and her children can be placed in an appropriate home they

first spend some time in a Shelter. Here they are interviewed, observed and tested by a trained staff of qualified doctors,

psychologists and social workers so that they may be transferred to the home best suited to their needs.

ALUMNI CHRONICLE

Mr. AKHTAR, A. U. ('47) has been appointed Welfare Officer, State Bank of Pakistan, Karachi.

Miss Banerji, Dr. G. R. ('44) who took her Master's degree from the University of Chicago, is now appointed Lecturer in Social Case Work at the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

Mr. Barnabas, John ('38) has been elected President of the Alumni Association for the year 1948-49.

Miss Batliwala, B. M. ('47) has been appointed Psychiatric Social Worker, J. J. Group of Hospitals, Bombay. She is also the recipient of a Foreign Scholarship and will be proceeding to the United States shortly.

Mr. Bhagawat, S. N. ('48) has joined the Children's Aid Society, Bombay, as Probation Officer.

Mr. Bhaskaran, P. A. ('45) has been appointed Labour Officer, Port of Cochin, Wellington Islands, under the Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

Mr. Bhave, J. V. ('42) has returned to India after a study tour in the United Kingdom as a United Nations Fellow.

Mr. Chatterji, B. ('45) who was till recently Honorary Joint Secretary of the Indian Conference of Social Work, has been appointed Executive Secretary of the organization.

Mr. Dave, S. S. ('38), has been promoted

to the post of Welfare Organizer, Bombay Municipality.

Mr. Deodhar, L. D. ('46) has married Miss P. G. Tilve ('47) who is now working as Probation Officer in the Female Beggars Home, Chembur. Both were Sir Dorabji Tata Research Scholars. Mr. Deodhar is still carrying on his research project in sugar industries in the Bombay Presidency.

Mr. Desai, N. A. ('42) has joined the Tata Chemicals Ltd., Mithapur as Labour Officer.

Mr. Dixit, S. K. ('48), has joined the staff of the Provincial Prohibition Board, Bombay. He was married recently.

Miss Dordi, P. A. ('45) has returned after taking the Master's degree from the New York School of Social work. She has specialized in Medical Social Work.

Mr. Goel, O. P. ('40) has returned to his post of Superintendent, B. J. Home for Children, after a study tour in U. K.

Mr. Gore, M. S. ('45) after topping the list of successful candidates for the M. A. (Sociology) Examination of the Bombay University last year, has joined the staff of the National Y. W. C. A. School Work, Delhi. He is engaged to be married to Miss Phyllis Marr ('46) who is also on the staff of the same school.

Mr. Harshe, G. N. ('40) is now Inspector of Certified Schools, Bombay Province, Poona.

Mrs. Irani, Freny A. ('38) has now been appointed Labour Officer with the Municipality of Bombay.

Mr. Kaikobad, N. F. ('44) has returned after taking the Master's degree in Social Work from the University of Pittsburgh. He has specialized in Social Group Work, with special reference to tension areas.

Mr. Kamath, P. V. ('46) has resigned from the Tata Oil Mills, Bombay, and joined the Ford Motor Company of India, Limited, Bombay, as Assistant Labour Officer.

Mr. Kochavara, T. L. ('48) who also went to the United States as a United Nations Fellow has returned to the Children's Aid Society, Bombay.

Mr. Krishnaswamy, C. S. ('48) has been appointed Labour Officer, with the Government of Madras and is posted at Coonoor.

Mr. Kulkarni, D. V. ('38) has been promoted to the post of Chief Inspector, Certified Schools, Government of Bombay.

Mr. Kulkarni, P. D. ('46) has been appointed Lecturer, Institute of Social Sciences, Kashi Vidyapeeth, Banaras.

Miss Kutar, M. J. ('47) is now in the United Kingdom undergoing specialized training in the care and education of the mentally deficient.

Mr. Mane, N. R. ('48) has been appointed as Labour Officer, Post and Telegraphs, Bombay, under the Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

Mr. Mathew, C. T. ('46) is working as Labour Officer, Sitaram Spinning and Weaving Mills, Trichur, Cochin State.

Mr. Misra, H. M. ('48) has been appointed Regional Conciliation Officer, Meerut.

Miss Mistri, P. P. ('48) has been appointed Field Work Assistant, Tata Institute. She worked as a voluntary research worker for the Prohibition Research project now in progress under Dr. A. M. Lorenzo of the Tata Institute.

Mr. Nagraj, A. G. ('42) has been promoted to the post of Research Officer, Prohibition Board, Government of Bombay.

Mr. Nanavatty, M. C. ('45) has joined the School of Social Administration, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio for advance training. Mrs. Daulat Nanavatty has also joined the same school for higher education in social work. His address is C/o Mr. Charles Hickox, 2674, Berkshire, Cleveland 18 (Ohio).

Mr. Paul, K. ('46) is now working on the staff of the National Y. W. C. A. School of Social Work, Delhi.

Mr. Pillay, K. S. ('47) has been appointed Labour Inspector (Central) and is posted to Hubli.

Mrs. Rajadhyaksha, Kesar, ('42) has been awarded U. N. fellowship for specialized studies in Medical Social Work and has proceeded to U. S. A., early in June.

Mr. Rajbunshi, G. L. ('42) is now working as Assistant Secretary, Women's Section, Ministry of Relief and Rehabilitation, Government of India.

Mrs. Renu, I. ('38) who went abroad on U. N. Fellowship, continues in her old position as Social Case Worker in the Child Guidance Clinic, Tata Institute.

Mr. Shikhare, V. P. ('40) has been promoted to the post of Assistant Inspector of Certified Schools, Government of Bombay.

Mr. Shroff, B. D. ('47) has married Miss R. Anklesaria ('47). Mr. Shroff represented

India in the Davis Cup Badminton Tournament.

Miss Sinha, U. ('48) has been appointed Lecturer, College for Home Sciences, Allahabad.

Mr. Singh, Wilfred, ('40) has returned to his post at Delhi after completing his study tour in the United States as U. N. Fellow.

Miss Sobhani, H. Y. Z. ('48) has left for the United States for specialized training in physiotherapy.

Mrs. Sukhnandan, L. J. ('42) is now receiving advanced training in Medical Social Work at the Tata Institute.

Miss Talpallikar, M. B. ('48) has joined the Children's Aid Society as a Probation Officer.

Miss Taraporevala, D. M. ('44) who was recipient of a U. N. Fellowship has returned to the Field Work Department of the Tata Institute after a study tour in Great Britain.

Mr. Talukdar, Karamat Ali ('48) is now working with the Friend's Service Unit, Bengal.

The following Alumni participated in the Madras Session of the Indian Conference of Social Work:

Mr John Barnabas (Secretary, State and Social Service Section); Miss Kokila Doraiswamy (Recorder, State and Social Service Section); Mr. O. Mohanasundaram (Secretary, Rural Social Work and Reconstruction); Mr. S. Nageshwaran, (Secretary, Welfare in Industry Section); Mr. P. L. Chirayath (Recorder, Welfare in Industry Section); Mr. S. N. Ranade (Secretary, Refugee Relief and Rehabilitation Section); Mr. P. T. Thomas (Recorder, Refugee Relief and Rehabilitation Section); Mr. P. D. Kulkarni (Assistant Public Relations Officer).

Among others who attended were: Mr. B. K. Roy, Mr. S. Krishnamachary, Mr. Krishnaswamy, Mr. George Katticaran, Miss G. K. Appalswamy, Miss N. B. Sidhwa, Miss S. F. Mehta, Mr. K. N. Randcria, Miss P. Mistry, and Miss C. D'Silva.

Mr. M. S. Gore and Miss S. F. Dastur—(student 1949) have been elected as Honorary Association Secretaries.

Miss C. D'Silva ('48) has resigned her post as Field Work Assistant, Tata Institute and is engaged to be married to Major S. J. D'Souza of 5th Royal Gurkha's. Miss D'Silva is the Honorary Treasurer of the Alumni Association for the current year.

ALUMNI ASSOCIATION

Study Circle On Labour Problems.

At the beginning of this year the Alumni Association decided to organize a study circle on Labour Problems where persons in the field in particular, and others in general, would exchange views and undertake deeper study of labour problems. In this connection, the initiative displayed by Messrs. S. P. Joshi, J. A. Panakal and Mr. K. A. Zachariah,

the convenor, has made the study circle a great success and its membership and usefulness is continuously increasing.

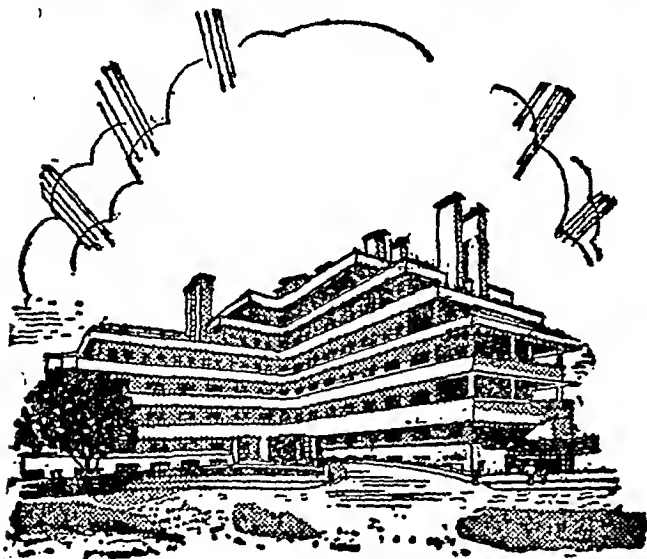
The membership of the Study Circle on Labour Problems is not confined to the Alumni. Anyone who has genuine professional or academic interest in problems relating to labour is eligible for membership.

The chosen leader introduces the selected subject briefly and then the members participate in the discussion that follows. We have found these discussions to be very interesting and instructive. Experience and knowledge, theory and practice are all shared by the members during the discussion, and the study circle is thus providing a great stimulant for deeper study of labour problems by the members.

The following topics have been discussed till now:

- (1) *Industrial Welfare* Leader: Mr. E. J. S. Ram.
- (2) *Labour Officer in Industry*
 Leader: Mr. S. T. Edwards.
- (3) *Fair Wages* Leader: Dr. M. V. Moorthy.
- (4) *Industrial Relations Law*
 Leader: B. Narayanswamy.
- (5) *Profit Sharing in Theory*
 and practice
 Leader: Prof. D. R. Samant and
 Dr. B. V. Narayanswamy Naidu.

TATA ENTERPRISES



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BOOK REVIEWS

Clubs for Girls. By Pearl Jephcott. Faber and Faber Limited, London 1943. Pp. 68 3 s. 6 d.

This is Miss Jephcott's second book under review, and is as thought-provoking as the first, namely, "Girls Growing Up", in which she had given us an insight into the minds of young girls and stressed their need for recreational centres, like clubs. In "Clubs for Girls", Miss Jephcott has expanded the same subject. "The aim of this book", she says "...is to suggest briefly and simply the underlying purposes of young people's clubs. The book is not addressed to experienced readers: for them it can contain little that is new. It is written in the hope that it may be of some assistance to those who would like to help in the running of a club."

What is a "Good Club"? Who are "Good Club Leaders"? These are two important questions which the writer answers for us. Since the club is a society formed primarily for recreation, and for people who are at work, its shell ought not to look like a school nor indeed like any academic building. It must be modern in feeling, and imply a place of action, not book learning nor mere lounging. The buildings and equipment should be simple and should suggest youth, but not childhood. Facilities for swimming and out-door games, a gymnasium, a hall with a stage, a piano, a radiogram, a cinema screen and projector are all desirable.

There should be rooms for study-classes and indoor-games; a studio and a work-room for arousing interest in handicrafts and creative work; a small library stacked with books for every taste; a canteen, gay and attractive, with plenty of good nourishing food. In short, there should not be a hard and fast rule about the

layout, but the boys and girls should be encouraged to make their own impression on their own building, by doing the work of making curtains and furniture; painting the halls, helping in the garden and so on.

Therefore, a "Good Club" should have a good appearance, its members should belong to all walks of life, so that the false barriers of social standing are broken down. "There are four things which most girls value in a good club" says Miss Jephcott. "Girls like to feel that they belong to a group which is a 'good show': and a good show implies plenty of action. They appreciate a chance to 'learn things'. They enjoy an opportunity to 'be useful'. Finally...they want a group that is actively 'friendly'."

It is not enough to have good clubs, we should also have good club leaders to run these clubs. A club leader need not have academic qualifications as a teacher. She must be one who is genuinely interested in boys and girls and in whom the latter are also interested. She must first find out what things in life have permanent value, should demonstrate in her own behaviour that she really does value such things. A club leader should have quite intimate knowledge of these young girls' homes, their friends, their work, their school. She should inculcate in the youth of today a desire to take a friendly interest in people and things, to look outside themselves and to become aware of the fact that they are a part of the mighty stream of life.

Such is the real function of a club and Miss Jephcott's book should act as a guide to all interested in the shaping of modern youth.

M. N. D.

Journal of Public Administration. Volume I, Number 1. V. K. N. Menon (Managing Editor), Allahabad. Pp. 89. Rs. 2/-.

The long felt need for a Journal dealing with Public Administration has at last been satisfied and we wish it all the success it truly deserves. The "Journal of Public Administration" is a Quarterly brought out by the Bureau of Research in Public Administration attached to the Public Service Commission, United Provinces.

This Bureau is the first one of its kind in India, and as Shri Gopinath Srivastava said "...If administration is the heart of the modern state, a Bureau of Administration can act, in great ways as well as in small, as its mind." It will carry on research in Public Administration, organise lectures and discussions and publish monographs. The Journal will report such lectures and discussions and publish summaries or reviews of such monographs as well as articles and book reviews.

The first number under review contains articles from distinguished contributors, each one an authority on the subject discussed. The task of an administrator outlined by the Hon'ble Govind Ballabh Pant, is well worth reflecting upon. An administrator should educate the masses, he should be free from corruption, he should hold the balance between conflicting interests and above all, he should devote every ounce of his energy, of his intellect, of his muscles and everything that he possesses to the service of his country and its people. From the task of an administrator let us pass on to the subject of the selection of such administrators.

India has achieved its freedom, and a new India needs a new administrative

machinery, and new ways of selection of personnel to man this machinery. T. P. Bhalla asks "Are the standards of examination, test and interview all that are possible? Should there not be field or psychic tests?" Bhagwan Sahay retorts "...the method of written examinations and *viva voce*, either together or separately, do not necessarily result in the selection of the right man. Then what is the right method?" asks the reader. Sohan Lal supplies the answer in his "Selection for Services by the Psychological Method". The author says that the word psychologist is associated with something magical in the public mind. He assures us that there is nothing magical about it and that the "Psychological Method" is the best known so far. Each candidate is made to answer an exhaustive questionnaire, to undergo an intellectual test, personality test and a situation test, and finally to appear for an interview.

Whilst Sampurnanand wants "a philosophic basis for public administration", R. P. Tripathi thinks that "Future India can prosper only when she is rejuvenated by her own inherent vitality and progress is made on the lines of her own genius and culture. Both P. N. Saprú and D. P. Mukerji have contributed illuminating articles on the "Judiciary in the New Order and the establishment of 'An Economic and Social Service' both Provincial and Central, as well as M. Chelapathi Rao on "The Press and Public Administration".

Therefore, this Journal with its distinguished contributions is indeed a welcome addition to the list of Journals in existence.

M. N. D.

THE PROBLEM OF ABORIGINES

B. H. MEHTA

The problem of the aborigines has been discussed in a lucid way by the author who has spent several years amongst the aborigines of Western India. He says: "The future approach to this seemingly simple but really difficult problem should be in the Gandhian way. The primitives should be approached on the basis of non-violence, accepting the principles of a democratic society and the fundamental equality and unity of man, in a spirit of love, service and humility." So far they had been approached with arrogance or fear, but with little understanding of the simple nature of their living. The author believes, not in isolation, but assimilation, with this difference that they should retain the naturalness, health and physical beauty of primitive life and should take to civilization without its neurosis, intolerance and bigotry.

Dr. Mehta is Professor of Social Welfare Administration in the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay.

Approach to the Problem.—The problem of primitive races has been approached with different ideals, outlooks and motives in the course of world history. When the peoples of overcrowded Europe, in search of market and shelter, crossed the ocean to find new lands, they came across strange people who appeared to be different from them. Political philosophers like Rousseau idealised the primitive ways of living and deplored the Golden Age that was lost to the so-called civilized world. Charles Darwin, when he laid the foundations of biology, opened a new interest for the human mind. The theory of evolution permeated all scientific interest, and a search for the trend of human evolution created a new scientific interest in the primitive races of the world, for they were the pioneers and originators of the social structure. Taylor, Westermarck, Durkheim, Boaz, Malinowski and many others started investigating all the aspects of primitive life; and ethnology, anthropology and anthropometry collected volumes of information about the mind, religion, marriage, family, society, art and economic and social life of the primitive races. Imperialism followed the scientist, and anthropological researches came to be explored for seeking so-called proofs for the existence of superior races and minds. As imperialism and all forms of exploitation came to be exposed

in the nineteenth century and the present century, and colonial rule and capitalism were found to be ruthlessly exterminating the primitive races, humanitarians the world over found a sincere interest in the well-being and welfare of these unfortunate and neglected peoples.

India is an ancient land and its history dates back four to six thousands years. India has been the home of the primitive races from pre-historic times. The Vedas contain useful information about the "dark, thick-lipped, noseless, godless" primitives who came into conflict with the ancestors of the Aryan race. Kingdoms of these so-called aborigines, however, continued to co-exist with Rajput and even Muslim kingdoms. The British rulers of India found it difficult to handle and tame the turbulent hunters and forest-dwellers of the hills and the rugged countryside. The fighters for India's freedom, since the days of the Indian mutiny, when the aborigines played a heroic part in freedom's battle, have found a sincere interest in the well-being of those who might be termed the descendants of India's real and original dwellers.

The problem of the aboriginal races in India demands a wealth of sympathy, knowledge and understanding, if emancipated India is to evolve a new and rich

pattern of national culture. The threads of the lives of the twenty-five million aborigines have to be carefully woven into the larger picture of national life by a master hand, keeping in mind the ancient heritage and somewhat different pattern of life and living that has come down to them after thousands of years.

The destiny of India has come into the hands of the city-dwellers, intellectuals and middle-classes who fought the battle of freedom, aided by the strength and co-operation of the Indian masses. The battle for freedom was ostensibly waged on behalf of the masses and that pledge has to be redeemed not only to the farmer and the city proletariat and the Harijans, but also to the twenty-five million people who have come to be known as Adivasis.

It is but natural that the urban and educated sections of India who have invariably lived physically away from the interior of the country with its many millions, feel that the so-called aborigines are different from them in many ways of life.

The Physical Environment.—The physical environment plays a vital role in the life of any human group, and the socio-economic pattern follows closely the life possibility of any given region. As against the dwellers of the plains, the culture breeders of the river banks, and the traders and industrialists of the coast-line and the cities, the aborigines live in the hills, forests and rugged countryside of India. Broadly speaking, they live on a long and broad belt of land starting from the Aravalli Hills in the West, proceeding into the Vindhya and Satpura Hills and portions of Western Ghats, the Central Provinces and what has been known as the forest of the Dangs, portions of the Eastern Ghats and then into Bihar, Orissa, Bengal and Assam, meeting

the large primitive groups of aborigines in the hills of Burma. Traditionally they have lived as hunters, gatherers, fishermen and crude cultivators, tilling the soil by a method known as "shifting cultivation".

Feudalism.—Conquest and circumstances brought many of these people as serfs on land, fisher-folk on the coast-line, and as industrial workers of Jamshedpur, Ahmedabad and coal and iron mines.

Race.—The Aryans and Dravidians are the predominant races of India and aborigines have invariably been considered, sometimes without proof, to belong to earlier, probably Mongoloid and Kaularian races.

Religion.—India, with its spiritual life and philosophers dating back to Vedic times, has given great importance to the religious beliefs and worship of the Dravidians and the Aryans and the later conquerors of Islam and Christian faiths. The primitive races in India are animist, but through the centuries they have been assimilated into what is broadly and generally known as Hinduism. The Vedic Aryans, after battling for a long time with the primitive animists, collected and introduced all the religious beliefs and forms of worship of the animists into what is known as Atharva Veda. The aborigines with their animistic beliefs in spirits of the supernatural who could mould the destiny of man, their hill gods, 'Mata Worship' (Mother Cult), witch doctors and ritualistic dances have gradually absorbed the beliefs in the greater Hindu Pantheon, the 'samskaras' or ceremonies and even the holy scriptures and the teachings and philosophies of the Hindu prophets.

Language.—The aboriginal tribes have their hundreds of rich primitive dialects like Bhilori, Gondwani, Santali, etc., without

their scripts, but contact with the plain dwellers has brought into their tongues elements of the vocabulary and grammar of the various Provincial tongues which are mainly daughters of the Hindi language descending from classical Sanskrit roots.

Social Life.—The social life of the aborigines has retained most of the ancient and healthy elements. In many cases, marriages amongst the tribal people are “free and transient” unions; in some cases, they are polygamous and polyandrous. They do not marry their children early; they still preserve many of the ancient forms of courtship; and the marriage ceremony in many cases is neither a religious sacrament nor a legal contract. Tribal assemblies yet continue to perform their old and traditional functions regulating marriage and controlling and regulating the life of the people.

Arts and Crafts.—The aborigines are an artistic people with high development and expression of aesthetics. Their dances are unique, their drawings and paintings express the wealth of colour and grace of line and curve which they see around them in nature. The simple life of the humble dwellers is not without song and music, and their ears are trained to the soft music of rustling leaves, flowing streams and winds that blow over their hot, rugged lands. The architecture of their simple dwellings is not without design and consideration for the functions and comforts of life.

Their Daily Life.—The food of the people is simple, and well cooked. The clothing and ornaments of the aborigines are unique, colourful and aesthetic. In fact they have contributed a good deal to the dresses of the many castes and communities of India. If they are underprivileged today, it is not because they lack the will, vitality and initiative to work, but successive years of feudal domination have deprived them of

the rich wealth of their once bountiful forests, hillsides and grasslands.

Recreation and Education.—Though deprived of much of the joys of initiative and freedom so common to primitive peoples all over the world, the recreational life of the aborigines is rich with the normal pleasures of living found not only in the unique celebrations of festivals like Holi, but the day-to-day dances, songs and games and artistic pastimes of the people reveal a cultural heritage that is all their own. That they are children of Nature and appreciate beauty, few can deny. The aborigines are an intensely social, friendly, tolerant people, except when their fear is aroused and their sense of security is endangered. On the whole, the pattern of their life is full of important details, and they show a remarkable interest in all the activities of life. Hambly in his ‘Origin of Education amongst Primitive Peoples’ has shown what is also very true in India, that though they may be illiterate and their environments void of complexities, they have unique and practical methods of education and training. That enables their children to grow up with keenly developed senses, ability for hard work and a natural intelligence that is able to solve the many and complex problems of life with a clarity of mind and a sense of humour that will be a puzzle to the so-called educated citizens of urban India.

Economic Life.—The aborigines are children of Nature, and their economic life is peculiar to the physical environment in which they live. Originally, they were hunters and fishermen and lived on the natural wealth of the forests. With the encroachment of the agricultural populations on their lands, they became serfs of the landlords. Wherever they became tillers of the soil, they took to a shifting cultivation of land, utilising primitive and crude

methods. They could hardly afford cattle and their rugged lands did not produce enough food, and so they kept mainly goats and poultry to supplement their living. They utilised the few raw materials of the forests to further supplement their income by ingenious crafts in which they used the most simple tools.

Their Isolation.—Such is the socio-economic background of the many racial types of aborigines that inhabit this vast continent. The ways of their living, absence of communications and lack of opportunity for economic development left these people segregated in their habitat. They were approached with arrogance or fear, but with little understanding of the simple nature of their living. They lacked contact with leaders of the land, nor could they reap the benefits of the nation's intellects. The petty administrative officers who came their way lacked the training and culture of efficient administrators. The higher officials who sometimes visited them, were patronising and paternal.

It is but natural that the aborigines lived in isolated islands, away from the influences that were modernising life in the cities and towns and important centres of rural development. With changes in the political life of the country, India has a new national consciousness. The fruits of freedom have to be shared by all, and the responsibility of national regeneration falls on the shoulders of all communities in the nation. The feelings of freedom naturally penetrate the most isolated areas and the wish of the national government is to open all areas to the convenience of modern communications and the process of social intercourse through the educative, mental and cultural developments.

Need of Cautious Approach.—It is but natural that initial contact will lead to

bewilderment and perhaps conflicts. The approach to the people and their problems must be careful, cautious and scientific. The proper approach will be to recognise the fundamental differences that exist and the lack of physical contact which has left much to be understood between the rulers and the masses of the country. It is desirable that the problems should be understood, facts should be studied, the psychological barriers that exist be realised, and an attempt be made to understand before hasty and unplanned actions and legal directives lead to conflicts, misunderstandings and troubles. The aborigines must primarily be approached in a spirit of service and not domination. They should be first approached so that we can know them and assist them to help themselves. Action must be slow, planned and firm, making the people understand the need and meaning of changes in the light of world evolution and development.

National Isolation Impossible—Assimilation Imperative.—The idealistic approach of leaders like Malinowski can be appreciated and understood, but India has to realise that it is no longer possible to create cultural islands and to isolate natural human groups to their own way of development. The writer of the article had an opportunity to visit Red Indian Settlements and primitive settlements in U. S. A. and Canada. It is futile to state or suggest that the human groups are isolated and free and are developing in their own way. On the contrary, they seem to be living an artificial life which is a soulless imitation of the original forest dwellers, and the characters of the dominant culture around them force themselves in their lives or inhibit them.

It is possible for primitive groups to have their own free evolution on vast areas of uninhabited continents. India has few

such areas left in the country. The undeveloped physical regions in which the primitives live have already been economically exploited by the feudal, industrial and commercial communities. Schools and languages have made their inroads on primitive dialects. Primitive animism has faded into the mass of beliefs and worships of heterogeneous Hindus. The caste system has cast its enslaving snare on the free social institutions of the primitives. Modern communications have reached their homes and aeroplanes fly over their skies. The products of their arts and crafts have found market in Indian towns and cities. Adult franchise brings them into a whirlpool of modern politics, and political parties have already pitched their camps in the regions in which they live. It is futile now to plead for isolation, segregation and reservation. They can no longer be left alone, and left to themselves they will not desire to be alone.

Method of Approach.—Under the above circumstances it is not at all suggested that the aborigines should be approached by the administration, the police and the army followed by a preacher and a teacher. On the contrary they should be approached by a wise leadership that will not make plans without the understanding of the problems and facts that govern their different, difficult and peculiar situations.

The fundamental aim must be their welfare and happiness. The best that is in their life—religious, economic, social, cultural—*must be preserved and enriched*. The simplicity and sincerity of their worship, the wealth of their language in songs, the beauty of their paintings, dances and crafts, their ability for hard work in natural environments, the equality of woman with man, the happy growth of children, and many such qualities of their life should not be permitted to die.

The exploitation of their lands and their people should cease forthwith in a new and free India, and they should be guided, trained and equipped to reap the fruit of their labour in the physical environment in which they find themselves.

What appears to be wrong amongst them must be understood with patience and deliberation, associating their own leadership with our own patient, thoughtful and constructive workers so that they may be assisted to remove the weeds in their own gardens with their own efforts, taking the necessary time. It has to be painfully realised and accepted that our minds, hands and hearts are not clean, and our own social and ethical backgrounds need to be adjusted to the needs of a free and prosperous nation.

It has to be seen that the changes that are to be introduced, the language they will speak, the laws they will obey, the social pattern they will evolve, the economic life they will develop and the cultural trends and patterns they will evolve in the future are their very own, and are not a result of thoughtless or ruthless domination. The manner of change must be happy, speedy and contributive to their happiness and welfare. Keeping the above in mind it is possible to suggest some measures that are useful for a proper approach to the problem.

A New Leadership.—The first need is adequate and proper leadership with a spirit of high and sincere ideals, clear objectives, a mind trained in methods of approach, with organising ability and capacity to live and work with goodwill, sympathy and understanding in remote areas amongst a virile, active and useful population that is an asset to the nation.

This nucleus of trained leadership should possess adequate knowledge of India's ancient

history and subsequent conquests, migration, and social, political, and economic upheavals. The simple and yet difficult nature of their lives cannot be understood unless there is a study in perspective of the growth of feudalism, commerce and industry in India. The leaders will have to learn some of the major dialects of the aboriginal tribes amongst whom they will work, practising the art of social assimilation, and learning to appreciate without criticism and condemnation the different ways of living and different patterns of morality, religion and culture of other people. A knowledge of anthropology, ethnology, psychology and sociology with special reference to primitive religion, social development and culture will have to be acquired.

Any effort at assimilation of these millions without conflict will fail unless this leadership quickly and systematically creates a leadership amongst primitives themselves, capable of organising their lives on democratic lines.

Remedying the Past.—Before the foundations of a new economy are laid for them, the handicaps they have suffered so long and patiently should be removed. The entire lower grade staff of the forest department should be overhauled, any vestige of "waith" or forced labour should disappear, absentee landlordism should be liquidated, money lending in the present form should be a thing of the past, and the aborigines should be quickly made the inheritors and guardians of the nation's forest wealth and pasture lands, exploiting them for their own and national benefit under the leadership of well organised schools of forestry and their own producer, consumer and credit co-operatives. The use and exploitation of the entire forest wealth for fuel, timber, dye-stuffs, glues, oils, *etc.*, as well as the careful and productive exploitation of the

flora, fauna, and bird life should be taught to them. Thus the economic readjustment of the aborigines should be accompanied by a thorough overhaul and planned exploitation and development of India's forest wealth.

Public Welfare Department.—After dealing with the difficult economic problem, the first duty of the Department of Public Welfare should be to organise health, primary education and technical education of the aboriginal youths under the guidance of Directors of Education and Physical Welfare.

Reconstruction Centres.—It is not possible to deal with the reconstruction of vast areas comprising a population of millions, and, therefore, there is the need to organise provincial and district centres of influence and training in selected aboriginal villages in the heart of the forest and agricultural areas. These villages should become the seat of tribal assemblies, village panchayats and should develop as community centres with administrative offices, primary education centres, forestry schools and handicraft schools, health centres, playgrounds and youth organisations. The successful working of these centres will gradually change the outlook and ways of living of the primitives.

As stated before, it is worth repeating that important problems in the life of primitives, especially those dealing with religion, language, social organisations and traditions governing marriage, *etc.*, should be approached with wisdom, caution and forbearance.

Handling Social Problems.—The religious beliefs and practices of the aborigines are the direct results of the simple working of their minds and psychological reaction to the physical environment. It is not necessary that human beings should always evolve a philosophical outlook, a moral background of life, a pattern of spiritual

life, and a rational understanding and interpretation of human conduct by going through all the experiences and experiments of organised religion. The spiritual life of man can and should be allowed to unfold itself and grow as a result of his own efforts and his struggles for survival and self expression. Religious missionaries, temples and highly organised priesthoods belonging to any faith do not create understanding of life but only impose patterns of behaviour and sometimes bring about conflicts between old traditions and new trends that are introduced irrespective of the needs and requirements of a social situation.

The Religious Problem.—Hinduism is not a single religious faith. It is a way of living that has evolved out of the traditional experiences of people who came to be known as Hindus, and who lived on this historic land for centuries. Hinduism contains the seed, the trunk and branches, the leaves and the flowers and fruits of religion. It is on the one hand the product of the primitive mind struggling to know a complex existence; on the other hand, it is the product of the spiritual efforts of some of the greatest prophets and philosophers to guide man along the path of morality and righteous conduct. It contains not one but several patterns of religious beliefs and worship, temples, priesthoods and Holy Books. Without difficulty or conflict, the primitives had adjusted themselves in the past to changing historical, religious, social and political situations. They should continue to do the same in future. The patterns of their life should be their own; they should assimilate with the rest of India volitionally and intelligently as a result of their own efforts, directed by their own tribal assemblies and guided by the administrative

officers, the social workers, and the educationists.

The Gandhian Approach.—India has to find and show a way of dealing with a major social problem. The relations between the primitive tribes in Africa, America and Australia with the so-called civilised people are not the same as the relations between the primitive people of India and the rest of the Indian population. Here populations of perhaps different races, with different types and degrees of culture have lived for centuries, have braved the storms and struggles of life, and have intermingled to a greater or lesser extent in normal social intercourse. Assimilation of races, traditions, languages, beliefs and patterns of life has taken place sometimes violently but mostly in a peaceful manner, to such an extent, that the changes have been hardly noticeable.

The future approach to this seemingly simple but really difficult problem should be in the Gandhian way. The primitives should be approached on the basis of non-violence, accepting the principles of a democratic society and the fundamental equality and unity of man, in a spirit of love, service and humility. It must not be a process of social domination and political imposition, but a process of common effort and understanding, letting life evolve peacefully into new channels as a result of the common efforts of the so-called primitives and the so-called civilised.

The so-called primitives should retain the naturalness, health and physical beauty of primitive life and environment, and they should take to civilisation without its neurosis and its unhappiness, its intolerance and its bigotry, its violence and its ruthlessness, its selfishness and its cruelty and its tendency to seek prosperity and success of the few through the exploitation of the many.

THE KASTURBA GANDHI NATIONAL MEMORIAL TRUST

NEELA BHATT.

The article traces the plan, development and programme of the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust. The author points out the important work done by the Trust and advocates for support from our Government, for this is the first nation-wide movement of its kind for dealing with the problem of women and children of rural India.

Miss Neela Bhatt (TISS '48) is Labour Welfare Officer, Telegraph Workshops, Jubbulpore.

Kasturba Gandhi died on February the 22nd, 1944, while in detention at the Aga Khan Palace in Poona, and her death plunged the whole country into sorrow and grief. She was the devoted wife of the Mahatma — loyal, humble and self-sacrificing. Gandhiji said: "Kasturba was a simple woman devoted to village life, actually living and serving among villages", and, therefore, when people collected a fund to perpetuate her memory, Gandhiji requested that it should be utilised for the betterment of the women and children in the villages of India.

What is the position of Indian women in society? It is well known that all human beings are born equal and that social inequalities are man-made. Inequality between man and woman is one of them. "In all patriarchal societies at all ages of history, the birth of a son has always been preferred to the birth of a daughter".¹ This is very true of Hindu society. The birth of a son is a matter for rejoicing, for it is the son who performs the Sraddha ceremony whereby his father's salvation is secured, and also because he is the earning member of the family. The birth of a daughter is a cause for sorrow, for she has to be married and the marriage expenses are to be borne by the parents.

From birth to death, a Hindu woman is burdened with numerous disabilities. As a child she is unwanted; as a wife she is

constantly put to the strain of bearing children and giving birth under unhygienic, primitive methods employed by the local *dai* or midwife.

Social Status.—As an individual, a Hindu woman has no independent social status. She has no right to the property of her husband or father, but is entitled to maintenance, residence and marriage expenses. A widow's right over her husband's property are limited too.

In the matter of education, only two per cent of our women are literate, whilst the literacy amongst men is twenty per cent. This neglect of female education is due in a large measure to social customs and also to the inadequate system of primary education. The amount spent on the Primary Education for girls is Rs. 1.5 crores whilst Rs. 7 crores are spent on the education of boys at the primary stage. As regards Secondary Education, it is mostly under the control of private agencies, and, therefore, lacks unity of conception and uniformity of control. Very little is done to promote adult literacy classes where women could be given instruction in reading and writing.

As regards the problem of working women, 25 per cent of the total number employed in agriculture and industry are women. In the villages, the women usually help the men-folk in the fields. But in the liberal professions and services, women form only 13 per cent of the total number, and are

¹ Blunt, Edward, (Editor), *Social Service in India*, p. 70.

sometimes paid less than men. Up till now, a prejudice existed against women taking an active part in public life. It was Gandhiji who, by launching his civil disobedience movement encouraged women to leave the shelter of their hearth and homes and evince interest in the political life of their country.

After the death of Kasturba in 1944, an All India Women's Movement was started for the reorientation of villages through the welfare of villagers—both women and children.

Evolution of the Trust.—The organisation for the management and administration of the Fund was gradually formed. At first, fifteen members were selected from a hundred well-known persons, to make appeals for the collection of the Kasturba Memorial Fund, but later on these members became the Trustees of the Fund and a regular Trust was made. Eleven more Trustees were co-opted by the previous Trustees and a Board of Trustees came into existence which declared the objectives of the Trust to be as follows:—

(1) The conducting and promotion of such activities as would conduce to the general welfare of poor and needy women and children in rural areas in India.

(2) Establishment and maintenance of Hospitals and Charitable Dispensaries for women and children, Maternity Homes, Child Welfare Centres and Institutions such as Ante-natal and Post-natal Clinics, Convalescent Homes, Sanatoria, Leper Colonies, Homes for Women and Children in rural India.

(3) The provision of sanitary facilities for women and children and the promotion

of preventive measures affecting the health of women and children in rural areas.

(4) The training of women for carrying out any of the aforesaid activities.

(5) Rendering help by grant and contributions to existing institutions which have been carrying out or undertaking to carry on in the rural areas of India mentioned in the above sub-clauses (1) to (3) for the purpose of carrying out any of the aforesaid objects.

(6) Any other activity incidental or related to the aforesaid objectives.

In addition to the basic objectives, the Trust has suggested the outline of the various fields of activities to promote the entire reorientation of village life. The various fields of activities in general outline, as accepted by the Trust are as follows:—

(1) Nai Talim (Pre-basic, Basic, Post-basic). It is the belief of the Trust that mere literacy is not useful to the women and children of the villages. The knowledge of agriculture, Khadi and Go-Palan is equally useful to them. Training should be given through practice.

(2) Improvement of Health Services (Sanitation, prevention of diseases, Home Nursing, Child Welfare, Maternity Centres and other rural medical activities).

In most of the villages of India, medical aid is not available. People in the villages are ignorant. They are suffering from many diseases which are due to uncleanness and can be prevented. The mortality rate for women and children is very alarming. Out of five children born, one dies in childhood. *Dais* are using age-old practices for delivery which are not clean and scientific. Enough importance is given to ante-natal, post-natal care of the mother and child by the Trust.

(3) Village Industries (Weaving, Sewing, etc.). It is the aim of the Trust to develop and revive village industries, so that villages may become better off economically and the standard of living of the people may be raised.

It has been the ideal of Gandhiji to make the villages self-sufficient and, therefore, the Trust activities are concentrated on developing and reviving Home Industries.

(4) Gram Seva (Village Welfare) *i. e.* it deals with many problems of day-to-day life in the villages. This type of activity is quite useful for the uplift of the whole village life.

(5) Miscellaneous (Go-Palan, Gardening etc.).

Thus, Gandhiji and the Trust, through the welfare of women and children wanted to reconstruct the entire life of the villages which are full of dirt, diseases and ignorance. Hardly anything is done for these seven lacs neglected and backward villages. It was the desire of Gandhiji, which was accepted by the Trust to use the Kasturba Fund for poor and needy villages, away from the cities and having a population of more than 2000. It was also the desire of Gandhiji and the Policy of the Trust that all the activities of the Trust should be carried out by women workers. Therefore, the Trust has given much importance to the training of women workers and leaders, who can help in the reconstruction of the villages on a new basis.

The organisation of the Trust may be divided into Central, Provincial and Local.

I. CENTRAL ORGANISATION

(a) *Board of Trustees*.—As already stated, the Board consists of 26 members, who are armed with multifarious powers. They appoint the Holding Trustees and the Executive members as well as the Secretary

of the Trust. They make rules and regulations and bye-laws for the administration and management of the Trust and for conducting the meetings of the Board of Trustees, the Executive Committee and the Holding Trustees and sub-committees. As regards their financial powers, a sum approximating 25 per cent of the total amount is allotted to the Central Fund.

A sum approximating 75 per cent of the total amount is allotted to various provinces in proportion to the total donation of each of the provinces. The allotted sum of the Provinces is used for purposes specified in the Trust. Also, in the administration of the sum allotted to the provinces due care should be taken for the needs of the districts. But as regards the collection made in the big cities, the Trustees may at their discretion reserve an amount larger than 25 per cent to remain as part of the central fund and to be utilised anywhere in any scheme of the Trust.

When 75 per cent of provincially allotted sum cannot be used partly or wholly by any province within certain time as fixed by the Trustees then the Trustees are at liberty to transfer that sum to the Central Fund.

The Trustees have power to accept donations or contributions at their discretion. When a contribution is not exceeding Rs. 500/- and if no conditions are attached to it, such a sum of contribution is considered as part of the Central Fund.

The Trustees have power to purchase or hire property for the purpose of carrying out the objects of the Trust. The Trustees, at their discretion, may borrow money from time to time for the furtherance of the objects of the Trust. But the total liabilities should not exceed five lacs at any time. The Trustees may direct Holding Trustees

to dispose off properties of the Trust. The Trustees are at liberty to allow any other Trust Institution, in any local area whose objects are similar to those of the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust to be amalgamated with the Trust.

Trustees have power to settle disputes or difficulties incidental to the administration, management and execution of the Trust. The settlement of the Trustees is final and it should not be objected to. Thus the Trustees have a power to settle accounts or disputes by court, compromise, or they can refer the issue to arbitration.

The Trustees have power to make rules and regulations and bye-laws for the administration and management of the Trust and for conducting the meeting of the Board of Trustees, the Executive Committee and the Holding Trustees and sub-committees.

(b) *Holding Trustees*.—The Trustees appoint from the Board of Trustees not more than six Holding Trustees. They manage, under the guidance of the Trustees, the properties of the Trust Fund with full powers to make alterations or improvements or sell any immovable property forming part of the Trust.

(c) *Executive Committee*.—This consists of.—

1. Chairman of the Board of Trustees.
2. Vice-Chairman of the Board of Trustees.
3. Secretary of the Board of Trustees.
4. Nine members to be elected from the Board of Trustees every year in the Annual Ordinary Meeting of Trustees. Members are eligible for re-election. The Chairman, Vice-chairman and the Secretary are ex-officio members of the Executive Committee.

The Executive Committee employs persons and agents anywhere in India, and appoints local committees at any place in India as it thinks necessary for carrying out the objects of the Trust. The Executive Committee gives necessary powers to these agents, persons and local committees and they work under its guidance.

The Executive Committee has power to frame or revise its own rules and regulations for the purpose of regulating its proceedings provided that they are not inconsistent with the rules, regulations and bye-laws of the Board of Trustees.

The Executive Committee has to keep proper books of accounts with respect to all sums of money received and expended on account of the Trust.

Every year the Executive Committee has to prepare proper account of receipts and expenditure of the Trust, and such accounts should be audited by duly qualified auditors. Also the Executive Committee has to keep minute books properly.

In the structure of the Trust, the Executive Committee holds an important place as it is the active body executing all the plans and policies of the Trust.

(d) *Organising Secretary*.—The Organising Secretary is appointed by the Trustees and is an active woman worker having knowledge of psychology and organising capacity. The Organising Secretary helps the provincial agents in their work and guides them. She also supervises the work of the Trust in the provinces. Moreover she works as a link between the Central organisational leadership at the top and Executive leadership on the spot. Thus she does good counselling work.

(e) *Advisory Medical Board*.—This Board gives expert advice and guidance to

the various medical schemes and budgets that come before the Trust for consideration. It also determines the line of work with regard to the training of medical workers in most areas. It prepares the syllabi for: (a) village Midwifery; (b) Village Nurses; (c) First Aids and Home Nursing; (d) Village Sanitary Inspectors; (e) Village Health Visitors; (f) Rural Medical Workers.

II. PROVINCIAL ORGANISATION

19 provincial agents have been appointed by the Executive Committee for different provinces. The work of the Trust in the provinces is divided into two main heads.— (1) Training of Gram Sevikas and (2) Starting of Work Centres.

The Training Institutions for Gram Sevikas should be located in rural areas and should be established on a permanent basis. The courses suggested by the Committee for General Gram Sevika training is as follows:—

Basic Crafts; Vegetable gardening and dairying; Domestic Science; Elementary Physiology, Sanitation and Dietetics; Rural problems; Principles of Constructive Work; History and Geography of India; Civics; Cultural activities; World Problems; Hindustani; Physical Education; Study of Principal World Religions.

The duration of the course is one year and is compulsory for all Gram Sevikas. The qualifications of the trainees are that:—

(1) Trainees should not be less than 18 or more than 30 years of age.

(2) Women with children under 3 years should not be selected.

(3) A trainee should have passed at least vernacular IV or its equivalent.

(4) A trainee should be one who is not fully responsible to the family.

(5) A trainee should be one who is able to work for a fairly long period.

Women who are found unsuitable within two months are discharged by the Trust. A trainee is given a scholarship of Rs. 20/- per month which includes boarding and lodging expenses. In some cases, Gram Sevika training is given in Ashrams and is for two years. If a person is well qualified or experienced, this one year's general training is dispensed with.

In addition to the above suggestions, the Committee also gives its opinion on the question of the training of staff for the provincial training centres, on having short duration camps for part-time workers, and on arranging refresher courses for the Gram Sevikas.

III. LOCAL ORGANISATION

Trained Gram Sevikas who have finished compulsory training or who have further specialised in:—

Gram Seva—Balwadi, Adult Education, Co-operative Movement, *etc.* Basic Teachers Training.

Gram Udyog—Weaving, Paper making, and Local Crafts, *etc.* Midwifery and Nursing, are sent to villages of 2000 or less population preferably and start either type of work with the help of part-time workers (if available) and villagers.

In the beginning the Trust gives financial help to the work-centre according to the 5 years' plan of working of the Executive Committee in which the Trust decreases the financial grant of the work centres gradually so that in the beginning of the sixth year the Trust stops to give financial help to the work centres which are then run by local finance. This principle was adopted because Gandhiji who was the soul of the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust, did not like the idea of making villages dependent on charity but he wanted them to be self-sufficient and independent.

The present villages need certain changes and, therefore, the little support, *i. e.* starting various types of work centres as medical, education and general Gram Seva is given. If once such centres of work are started, then they will be rooted in village life and all the responsibility of the work will be on the villagers.

Thus in poor and needy villages where trained personnel are available, the work centres are started by the Trust.

It is suggested by the Committee that the salary of Gram Sevikas should not be less than Rs. 30/- and not more than Rs. 75/- per month plus dearness allowance 25 % of salary but not less than Rs. 10/- according to the needs and abilities of Gram Sevikas. Such is the organisation of the Trust, Central, Provincial and Local.

Training Centres.—The following table will give us some idea of the development of the training centres under the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust:—

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF TRAINING OF WORKERS UNDER THE K. G. N. M. TRUST

Kinds of Training ...	Workers under training			No. of Trainees left			No. of Trainees completing training			Total Nos. of Admissions		
	'45	'46	'47	'45	'46	'47	'45	'46	'47	'45	'46	'47
Gram Sev. Training...	136	243	174	47	75	120	—	106	210	183	424	504
Balwadi Teachers Trg.	80	18	15	—	—	2	80	6	17	80	24	34
Basic Teachers Trg...	26	32	58	—	4	8	—	27	22	26	63	88
Midwifery Training...	18	44	57	—	3	10	—	—	8	18	47	75
	260	337	304	47	82	140	80	139	257	307	558	701

The general Gram Sevika Training course for 1 to 1½ years is compulsory for all workers who intend to go to villages for service, as this course introduces workers to the ideology of the Trust and acquaints them with rural problems and conditions. After this preparatory compulsory training for one year, Trainees are sent for specialised training as follows:—

Balwadi—duration of training 1 year.

Basic teachers training—duration of training is 1 to 2 years.

Midwifery—duration of training is 18 months.

Balwadi Teachers Training.—This is divided in two parts: Three months course for Bal Kridangan; Six months course for

Balghar. The Trust lays great stress on the training of Balwadi teachers as they carry out the main objectives of the Trust, namely, the welfare of children.

Basic Teachers' Training.—This is specially encouraged by the Trust due to dearth of trained teachers. In 1947, 22 candidates completed their teachers' training and 58 were under training at the end of the year.

Training of Medical Workers.—The following qualifications were necessary for the training of midwifery and nursing:

1. Trainees should come from rural areas.
2. Educational qualifications—Trainees who have completed the basic school course are given preference or candidates who have

passed vernacular final or Anglo-Vernacular may be admitted but they should have:

- (a) Good knowledge of mother-tongue.
- (b) Arithmetic.
- (c) History and Geography of India.
- (d) Elementary knowledge of Domestic Science, sewing, washing, cooking, etc.
- (e) If possible elementary knowledge of Hindustani.

The training period was revised and extended as follows in 1947:

1. Compulsory Preliminary training raised from 3 to 12 months.
2. Midwifery and Domiciliary training period raised from 15 to 18 months.
3. Nurses training period raised from 18 to 24 months.

Such training is given in recognised institutions and the trainees have to undergo a very difficult period of training in medical work.

Leprosy Relief Work.—In 1945, the Executive Committee sanctioned the sum of Rs. 21,000 for building and an annual recurring expenditure of Rs. 8,340 for beginning relief work in Addukam village of South Arcot District. It also sanctioned a grant for the Mahagauri Seva Mandal, Dattapur, Wardha, which is one of the pioneer institutions in the field of leprosy relief work. In 1947, at the instance of the Advisory Medical Board the All India Leprosy Workers Conference was convened and was attended by a hundred delegates.

Work Centres.—The training of the workers is not an end in itself. It is the

means that leads ultimately to the starting of work centres. Such centres are located in villages having a population of 2000 or less. In some cases the Executive Committee of the Trust or the Chairman can relax this rule. All work centres have to work according to the five years' plan, in pursuance of the resolution of the Executive Committee dated July the 1st, 1948. According to this resolution, each centre is to become financially independent at the beginning of the 6th year. The proportion of help from the original Trust Fund should be progressively reduced from year to year on the following scale:

1. First year upto 85% from the original Trust Fund.
2. Second year upto 75% from the original Trust Fund.
3. Third year upto 75% from the original Trust Fund.
4. Fourth year upto 50% from the original Trust Fund.
5. Fifth year upto 25% from the original Trust Fund.
6. From the beginning of the sixth year NIL.

The first two years *i.e.*, 1944 and 1945 were spent in collecting funds, in organising provincial and local committees, deciding the scope of work and starting the training of workers. In 1945 there were only 5 Gram Seva centres, 3 Maternity and Child Welfare Centres and one Leprosy Centre. By 1947 there were 157 work centres. The following table will give us a clear idea of the rapid development of various activities in different villages:

Provinces	Gram Seva Centres		Basic Schools and Kanya Ashrams		Balwadi Centres		Medical Centres		Total Numbers	
	No. of Centres	No. of Sevikas	No. of Centres	No. of Sevikas	No. of Centres	No. of Sevikas	No. of Centres	No. of Sevikas	Centres	Sevikas
Andhra ...	3	6	2	4	—	—	1	2	6	12
Assam ...	10	12	4	7	—	—	—	—	14	19
Bengal ...	16	22	—	—	—	—	—	—	16	22
Bihar ...	22	31	4	6	1	1	—	—	27	38
Delhi ...	1	1	—	—	1	2	1	2	3	5
Gujarat ...	3	3	—	—	8	13	1	1	12	17
Karnatak ...	4	7	1	2	1	1	—	—	6	10
Kerala ...	8	16	—	—	1	1	*1	1	10	18
Mahakoshal ...	2	4	—	—	—	—	2	3	4	7
Maharashtra ...	8	10	—	—	1	1	2	3	11	14
Mysore ...	15	28	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	28
Mahavidarbh ...	2	2	—	—	1	1	2	6	5	9
Orissa ...	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1	1
Rajasthan ...	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2
Tamilnad ...	7	8	3	6	1	2	†8	17	19	33
U. P. ...	7	9	—	—	1	1	1	2	9	12
Total ...	110	161	15	26	16	23	19	37‡	160	247

*Centre was closed during the year 1947.

†A Leprosy relief centre is included.

‡Includes 7 lady doctors.

In conclusion, we may state that the work undertaken by the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust is Herculean, for there are a number of difficulties to be surmounted. India consists of 700,000 villages which have been badly neglected, and poverty and ignorance are rampant. Gandhiji knew that the progress of a country depended on its masses and raising their standard of living by educating them in various ways.

The ideals of the Trust could not be realised all at once. A sufficient number of women did not respond to the call of working in the villages. The spirit of self-sacrifice is still to be aroused which will make them willing to devote their lives for the welfare of women and children in rural India. In some provinces, the activities of the Trust have not been appreciated and the villagers

take up a hostile attitude. To remedy this, it is necessary to convince the villagers by means of propaganda, both oral and visual. Such a nation-wide movement should receive recognition from the National Government for it is important for many reasons. To quote: "Firstly, it is a rural movement which will permeate and strengthen the feminist movement in every nook and corner of the country. Secondly, the movement will touch the fundamental chords of Indian Society and work for bringing health, happiness and education to the women and children, the mothers and parents of India today and tomorrow. Finally, the movement will create a new army of women leaders, unlike the present movements in the city whose leadership is confined to a small number."²

² Mehta, B. H., "Training of Women for Rural Work," *Indian Journal of Social Work.*, No. I, Vol. VII.

PLACE OF RECREATION IN LABOUR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A. K. SINGH

"Modern civilisation with its complex life is in need of recreation more than at any other time in the history of man" says the author, and therefore industrialists in Western Countries have provided ample facilities for recreation for their employees. Recreation holds an important place in Labour Community Development as it promotes inter-group relationship and co-operative understanding. "Civilisation may depend for its roots upon the way work is done, but it depends for its finest flower upon the use of leisure". Hence trained recreation leaders are needed to inculcate in the people the right use of leisure.

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Social Welfare.—Social Welfare Work has so far been sponsored by religious organisations, charitable institutions, philanthropic people and political parties. Many people consider Social Welfare Work as the pastime of the rich, who patronise it to get recognition and to come in the limelight. Whocver may take up this noble work should possess full knowledge of human beings and should have a correct approach.

The most important concern of social welfare work is the human being, but somehow it appears that the emphasis is only given to his environment. Social work should be a process of education to fit the individual to his environment and to enable him to make best use of his resources, and to help him develop an attitude and ability to avoid poverty, delinquency and illness. Social Welfare problems are problems of the people and are sometimes known as the three D's—Disease, Dependency and Delinquency. People face hazards of sickness, injury and physical handicaps. Some people lack mere necessities of life because they may be physically or mentally handicapped or unemployed or aged or homeless or they may have had some other breakdown in their normal means of support. People also present problems because of their lack of ability for social adjustment. They may break the law, they may shirk their family

responsibility or commit any other unsocial act.

Responsibility to meet the above problems, primarily rests with the individuals. Some problems such as providing proper sanitation, protection against communicable diseases, organising leisure time activities, *etc.*, cannot be solved by individual action. The source of many human difficulties may be traced to the general community environments or to existing economic conditions which are beyond the individual's control. To solve such problems for the individuals and their families, society has to organise the means to supplement the efforts of the individual. This process is known as the Social Welfare Work which has been developed in the following three areas:—

Social Case Work.—It deals with individuals who have problems, usually of those facing breakdown. It helps them to cope, unaided, with their own affairs.

Social Group Work.—It aims at enabling people to work in groups for a variety of purposes, and to get experience in co-operative activity.

Community Planning and Organisation.—It seeks to get different people and different groups to work together to provide better services in quantity and quality for all people.

Community Development.—Community Development is an outcome of Community Planning and Organisation.

Community Planning.—It is a recent trend in Welfare Work which means orderly thinking in relation to community needs. This trend has been brought about by certain existing forces, such as housing shortage, vocational training and placement, shifting of population, and awareness and recognition of the people's needs. It is a conscious effort to guide the economic and social life of the people, with due consideration for the characteristics and resources of the community. It involves choices and establishes priority. Planning should finally end in action.

Community Organisation.—It is a process of organising the community for the social welfare needs. It brings about and maintains an effective adjustment between social welfare needs and social welfare services. Community organisation is a "mass attack" in co-ordination with various agencies to solve the problems of the community. Composite needs of the individual are so general and universal that they become community needs, and call for group action. Whenever individuals and groups seek ways and means to pool their resources and efforts to achieve an improvement in group life, the community organisation process is at work, which encourages co-operative effort and leads it towards objectives related to common welfare. The primary object of the community organisation process is to help people to find ways to express themselves and to improve their environment in which they and their fellowmen carry on their lives. This is possible by the functions of community organisation which are to promote the following Social Services:—

1. Child Welfare Services
2. Family Welfare Services

3. Health Services
4. Protective Services
5. Care of the Aged
6. Leisure-time Services

Recreation a Leisure-time Service.—Leisure-time services are an important phase of Community Development Programme, since they directly deal with the human being. Recreation is the leisure-time activity which results in the growth of the man himself, while the other services improve his environment.

What is Recreation.—Recreation is generally defined as any interest or activity in which a person enjoys participating and which is not a part of his daily work. Recreation is any form of activity in which one feels a sense of freedom and self-forgetfulness and participates in it whole-heartedly. It is an expression of the inherent nature of man, which helps him to be the man his inner nature demands. It is a form of leisure-time experience which provides an individual physical, mental or spiritual satisfaction, through certain forms of activities which provide an opportunity for self-expression and people get fun, pleasure, relaxation and satisfaction from it. Such activities not only provide participation and satisfaction but reinvigorate his body, mind and spirit, and enable him to live an abundant life.

Recreation and Labour.—Modern civilisation with its complex life is in need of recreation more than at any other time in the history of man. The present machine-age has broken up the old simple life of the people and modern cities with population of millions have come into existence. Family ties have been broken and urban life has brought loneliness to the people. Industries and machines have produced "goods and leisure". The tempo of life is

at its highest and the balance and equilibrium of life has vanished. The increase of leisure for the industrial worker calls for his education, in the use of leisure, which may enable him to live happily and efficiently. The factory worker has a monotonous and dull routine job, which tires out the one set of small muscles. He needs recreation activities during his leisure which will result in restoring the balance and in providing exercise for the unused set of muscles. The routine jobs do not provide any opportunity for self-expression, hence, his leisure should make up for it. Most of the strifes and crimes occur in the labour communities because the workers have nothing to do in their leisure periods. Labour class people generally lack home resources, and without opportunities for wholesome recreation, tend to seek questionable amusement which lead to delinquency. Workers need recreation during their off-duty hours, in order to keep their morale and productivity high.

Industrialists in other parts of the world have realised that the efficiency of their workers is affected by the way they spend their leisure. Consequently, many industrial concerns in the West have provided for them ample facilities for recreation. Labour Unions in Western Countries have conducted extensive recreation programmes for their members, and have developed recreation facilities including Vacation Centres.

Purpose of Industrial Recreation.—The worker is the central figure of the community development programme. He or she should be first taken care of, and then the rest will be easy. It will be useless to improve the environments of the people and leave him untouched, because neither will they be able to appreciate it nor will they be able to adjust themselves to things which they are not used to. Recreation can serve

the purpose of educating the workers to understand the need and importance of community development. Recreation is the main tool of the Social Group Work as it provides the best opportunity to work in groups and to take up co-operative enterprise which is so essential for community development. The interest and co-operation of the worker is absolutely necessary in this enterprise. The purpose of recreation for industrial workers is to develop him and to enable him to fit in the community.

Recreation in industry should take into consideration the interests of three groups—the Employee, the Management, and the Community. All the three should be benefited if the recreation programme is properly designed to satisfy the employee, his family and the management. Employees should be provided with a varied programme to meet their recreational needs at minimum or no cost to themselves. The families of the employees should also be catered for. Workers should have an opportunity for social contacts with the management and their fellow-workers. They expect wholehearted support and co-operation from the management.

The management should consider recreation as an obligation and a tool to better management. Management may expect certain definite results, by providing satisfaction to the employee and his family. Recreation should provide the management an opportunity to promote the welfare of all concerned and that it should develop loyal and efficient workers. It should create better understanding between the employer and the employee, so that the community may be benefited and the prestige of the management may be enhanced in the community.

Industries can afford to pay and should pay for the recreation facilities and leader-

ship for their workers. Recreation will pay off unprecedented dividends by reducing illness and absenteeism, by developing morale and loyalty and by having better production through the efficiency of the worker.

Need and Importance of Recreation.—Recreation develops the whole man by serving the three aspects of human life—sociological, psychological and physiological.

Sociological Aspect of Recreation.—Man is a social animal and cannot have a normal existence without group living and group action. Such social needs of the individual are met by recreation. For recreation certain groupings are formed which represent the interest of all the members of the group. The family which is a Primary Group used to provide opportunity for recreation, but due to change in the living conditions, this function is on the decline. Hence, the Secondary Groups have become more important in the present day society. Such groups are more congenial because they are the result of conscious association based on common interests and habits. Group Process is important in recreation, as it prepares people for a life in a group and in an inter-dependent society. Recreation groups have to abide with the modes and customs of the community which enable them to learn social customs and to get rid of anti-social tendencies. Recreation helps to bridge the gap between persons and groups of persons. It provides an opportunity to excel as an individual and also as a group. The very concept of recreation suggests association which produces a sense of belonging and security. Man craves for contacts with others and recreation brings people together and helps them to be sociable and acceptable, which expands and satisfies his social cravings.

Psychological Aspect of Recreation.—The common psychological needs of the people are described as Security, Affection, Recognition, and New Experience. Recreation provides opportunity to meet these basic drives of human beings through socially acceptable channels. Recreation is seldom enjoyed in isolation. Besides the human desire of being in company of others, they also like to be associated with some organisation or movement, such as clubs, lodges, fraternities, etc. Play group of children, "mystery gang" of the youth, teams or clubs of the adults, are the examples of this urge. The loyalty of such groups is marvellous, and the motto "one for all and all for one" is the proof that their security gets established. In a group like this the individuals develop affection for each other. They do not feel that they are just members of the group but feel that "we are wanted". Love and affection are the driving forces in the accomplishments of the people and this guides them in their interests, aspirations and considerations for each other.

Every one cannot achieve high social status, yet it is desired by all. The young child feels important whenever he succeeds in a new accomplishment and demands attention or recognition. Same is true of grown-ups and others. Some people get recognition through awards, others are motivated through the activity itself. Competition holds an important place in recreation, as it encourages accomplishment which results in recognition. It is easy to get recognition in a recreation group, either by some kind of contribution or actual achievement.

Adventure or new experience is another urge which is satisfied through recreation. Camping, excursion, travelling to new places, initiation into new activities, etc., provide thrilling experiences which ordinarily are

not available in the course of daily life. Such experiences are enjoyed by young and old, and are important for human satisfaction, through the field of recreation.

Physiological Aspect of Recreation.—The sedentary living created by the industrial age is directly responsible for man's physical, mental and moral breakdown. The congestion of city life exposes people to frequent infection of disease, and they lack the vitality and strength to fight it. Long hours of indoor work and lack of fresh air and sunshine affect the health of the people.

Recreation can assist in the organisation of a Health Education Programme, through which participants can learn the importance of health and how to maintain it. Recreation provides plenty of exercise and outdoor games which build health, vitality and endurance. The fact that participation in wholesome recreation activities contributes to the physical health of people is fully recognised. Big muscle activities stimulate growth of the child and games and sports develop the vital organ. Certain forms of recreation activities produce better circulation, more respiration, better elimination and improved digestion. Rest and relaxation through recreation contribute to emotional stability. Modern developments in hospital treatment provide recreation as a remedy for mental disorders. Recreation holds an important place both in preventive and curative medicine. Recreation has played an important part in the rehabilitation of mental and physical cases of the war. The feverish nervous strain of industry and the machine age can be relieved by play and activities like music, hobbies, *etc.*

Recreation can help to avoid the following five conditions which prevail in a labour community:—

1. Lack of social life among the workers creates self-centred and dissatisfied individuals.
2. Lack of varied interests causes mental stagnation.
3. Lack of provision for leisure and unsatisfactory environments breeds trouble.
4. Lack of facilities for recreation and social contacts acquires irritable dispositions.
5. Lack of activities of one's choice results in mental and physical ennui, which affects productivity.

Recreation Programme and Facilities.—Some Industrial Concerns have provided certain facilities for the workers which have resulted in producing a few representative teams. These teams consist of a few outstanding players in certain games, on whom large sums of money are spent, while the majority of workers have nothing to do, except to be the silent spectators. The spectators and supporters enjoy themselves by watching the games and betting which usually results in quarrels and loss of hard-earned money. Most of the workers have neither the skill nor the inclination to participate in such strenuous games because when they were young they might not have had the opportunity to learn to enjoy themselves through healthy recreation. Choice of activities for recreation depends on inner tensions and on character structures. A person with speculative temperament may choose games of chance, while another with aggressive tendencies may participate in competitive sports. Every individual has his own reasons for selecting and participating in various types of recreation. Slavson, an authority on recreation says, "Recreation to the individual may be classified as those that serve as complementary experiences, as having compensatory values, as serving to discharge

aggression, as pattern for regression, as escape from reality, as satisfying social hunger, and as resources for solitude."

Recreation programme should be so organised that it will meet the needs of all the workers and their families, with respect to their interest and ability. A well-organised programme should include:—

Physical Activities, such as, Games and Sports, Aquatics, Exercises, Boxing and Wrestling, etc.

Social Activities, such as, Social Recreation—Parties, Group Games, Club Programme, Picnics, Celebration of Festival and Important Events, etc.

Cultural Activities, such as, Arts, and Crafts, Music, Drama, Hobbies, Dancing, Study Groups, Forums, Lectures, Debates, etc.

Educational or Welfare Activities, such as, Adult Education, Night Schools, Visual Education, Health and Baby Weeks and Projects, Cookery, and Sewing Classes for Women, etc.

Facilities for all the above activities should be provided, such as, Play-grounds, Children's Apparatus, Recreation Centres, Gymnasias, Swimming Pools, Reading Rooms, Camp sites, etc.

Leadership.—Leadership is an absolute necessity for the success of any scheme. People are a complex commodity and to deal with them, one must have thorough knowledge of human beings, their interests and characteristics. Trial and error method cannot be employed while dealing with people. There should be three types of leaders for recreation—Professional—Volunteers—and Specialists. They must have personal, educational and technical qualifications. Professional leaders are those who are fully trained in the technique of re-

creation and its allied fields. They are the people who should be employed to head the departments of recreation, and should have administrative and supervisory responsibilities. Volunteer leaders are usually selected from those who are interested in doing a piece of service, and have certain amount of inherent leadership quality. They may also be initiated into the sphere of work and provided with some kind of recognition, as an incentive. Specialists are those who have qualified in a particular type of activity, such as music, craft, etc. and may be employed part time or full time according to the nature of the programme and the response of the participants.

The Recreation leaders must have personal, educational and technical qualifications. They should be interested in people and should have a philosophy of developing human welfare. They must possess good health to be able to stand the strain of strenuous work. They must have practical knowledge and insight into recreation activities, so that they may be able to sponsor suitable activities in consideration of people's age, sex, need, and interest. They must have an understanding of the people and should be able to work with them in a democratic manner. The recreation leader should have personal, academic, and professional preparation, mental capacity, emotional stability, maturity, social adjustment, and ability to work with people effectively.

Unfortunately, there are no training facilities available at present in India, to train recreation leaders. However, there are Colleges for training leaders for Health, Physical Education and Social Work. Some of the Universities are providing courses in Social Science. Recreation being an important phase of Social Welfare Work, should be included in the curriculum of

such institutions. The Industries, Local and Provincial Governments, and the Public, should demand trained recreation leaders instead of being satisfied with any kind of personnel, and should give necessary support to such institutions which are in a position to introduce such training.

Recreation can fill a large gap in the lives of human beings and can help the growth of their personality, so it should be made available to all. Burns says, "Civilisation may depend for its roots upon the way work is done, but it depends for its finest flower upon the use of leisure." Leisure should be used for the enrichment of life. Culture and civilisation are built on the proper use of the leisure of the people. The ancient civilisation of the Greeks, which is a source of inspiration even today, was a result of the pursuit of leisure.

Community Development will never be of much value if the worker himself is not educated and developed. Recreation can play an important part in achieving

this. Community solidarity depends to a large extent on recreation, as it provides inter-group relationship and co-operative undertakings. The Indian worker is exploited due to his ignorance and lack of education, and is being torn apart by prejudices, political intrigues and communal differences. Recreation can go a long way towards bringing people together on a common platform, where there is plenty of opportunity of understanding people, and realising that caste or creed has no barriers in building unity, friendship, and social understanding. Recreation is as important to the employee as the provision for proper working conditions and facilities for eating and sleeping. They need something more than salary to balance their hours of tedious and monotonous work. Industries can no longer ignore recreation more than safety programmes, rates of pay, working conditions, hospitalisation, and other necessary functions so vital to the employer, the employee, and the community.

HOW AN INDIAN LOOKS AT THE AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

NORMAN KIELL

This article by an American student is interesting because of its objective and analytical approach and also because it incidentally reveals how an American looks at how an Indian looks at the American educational system. The author has collected valuable data after interviewing fifty Indian students studying in U. S. He finds out their disappointments and dissatisfactions and suggests two measures for removing them.

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During the war years of 1944-1946, I was stationed at Calcutta, India. Through the good representation of some friends in the United States who had associations in India, I was able to come into close contact with some the faculty and students of the University of Calcutta.

I was naturally attracted to the University because I had spent the previous five years doing group work at several mid-western campuses in the U. S. I was curious to know what the Indian student was like, what his interests were, his course of studies, his "extra-class" activities and the like. Some of my questions were answered, others were not. But any rate, I began to see a few of their problems.

Upon my return to the United States, I helped to organize the American Friends of India. The primary function of the Friends was educational: to interpret India to Americans. We found, too, that there was fertile field to interpret America to Indians as well, and particularly Indian students attending universities in the United States. Through the offices of the Friends, we were able to bring many of them into the orbit of American life through many group work techniques. This experience furthered my interest in Indian students.

Subsequently, I travelled for nearly a year through the United States, visiting college campuses and speaking with many Indian students. I discovered a goodly number were dissatisfied with the education

they were getting and many were sorely disappointed with American democracy as they saw it.

Events moved rather fast for me and I decided to continue my studies for my doctorate. My experiences with the Indian students led me to believe that if their disappointments and dissatisfaction were typical, there were a great number of foreign students in this country who needed guidance and counselling, and so my studies were directed in this channel.

How can I best serve the foreign students studying in the United States? Perhaps it is best first to find out what he thinks, how he feels, what his interests are. To obtain this information, I spoke with fifty Indian and Pakistani students at Columbia University and Teachers College, using the controlled interview technique, except for the first section as noted below.

I divided my questionnaire into two sections, the first devoted to questions of a personal nature so that I would have a fair representation and cross-section of India's population; the second section devoted to broader aspects of the problem.

Here are listed the twelve questions of the first section:

1. Age last birthday
2. Are you married or single?
3. Sex
4. Resident of City Province

5. Religion (and caste, if Hindu)
6. Highest Indian degree....from....
year....
7. Field of study in India
8. Field of study in the U. S....Degree
working for....
9. Your profession
10. Time spent in the U. S. to date
11. Are you a government scholar?
12. What university are you attending?

The mean age of the group is twenty-six. A breakdown reveals the following distribution:

Table I. Age Frequency		
Age Bracket		Number
20-23	..	7
24-28	..	27
29-33	..	9
35-37	..	5
No Answer	..	2
Total	..	50

It may be concluded that the Indian student in the U. S. A. is a fairly mature person, with an age range of 20 to 37 inclusive and with a mean of 26.

Table 2. Sex Distribution		
Male	..	42
Female	..	8
Total	..	50

Table 3. Marital Status		
Single	..	34
Married	..	15
Widower	..	1
Total	..	50

Thus, two-thirds of the group are single and one-third married. The latter have an

aggregate of twelve children, all of whom are still in India or Pakistan with the remaining parent. Of the fifteen married students here, 14 are male, 1 female.

Table 4. Geographical Representation		
Assam	..	1
Bombay	..	20
Calcutta	..	5
Hyderabad	..	4
Jubbulpore	..	1
Lahore	..	3
Lucknow	..	4
Madras	..	7
Nagpur City	..	1
Patna (Bihar)	..	1
Travancore	..	3
Total	..	50

We find here an adequate geographical representation and not necessarily an absolute one. From Lahore in the north to Madras in the south, from Bombay on the west coast to Calcutta on the east, with scattered distribution in between these four points is as good a sample as could be desired, particularly in view of the limited number of students available for the interview.

Table 5. Religious Preference		
Hindu	..	27
Protestant	..	7
No preference	..	7
Muslim	..	3
Parsee	..	3
Jain	..	1
Jewish	..	1
Catholic	..	1
Total	..	50

More than 50 per cent of the group is Hindu. The next largest bloc is the Protestant, with the Methodist sect predominating. Moslems and Parsees are represented with three each. It is significant to note the small number of Muslim students in the country this year. This number does not accurately reflect the religious

distribution in India, where there are three Hindus for every Muslim. This phenomenon may be due to two factors: first, the Pakistan Government, which is a theocratic Muslim state, has sent very few of its students in this, its second year of existence as a state, to the United States for study. Second, the Government of India may not be sending as many government scholars of the Islamic faith as it proportionately could. This observation is not necessarily accurate, because of the very limited scope of this study.

Of the remaining of the fifty students interviewed, one is a Jain, one a Catholic and one a Jew. Thus, every great religious faith of India is represented except for the Sikh.

Perhaps the greatest significant fact to come out of this question is that 7 of the 50 professed no religious belief. One claimed he had no religion; three said they were Hindus by birth but no longer believed in the faith of their fathers; and the remaining three have a "philosophy of life" by which they stand. It might be safe to deduce from this that these students are the forerunners of emancipation from the strict caste system of India.

Table 6. Caste Distribution		
Brahmins	..	6
Kshatriyas	..	2
Vaisyas	..	9
Sudras	..	1
No caste	..	7
Non-Brahmins	..	2
Total	..	27

When the 27 Hindus were asked, "To what caste do you belong?" 7 refused to answer, saying that they were trying to eliminate caste in India and did not wish to perpetuate the system by answering such a question. This may reinforce the argument above.

Table 7. Indian University Degrees		
None in India	..	1
Diploma	..	4
Bachelor of Arts	..	8
Bachelor of Science	..	6
Bachelor of Engineering	..	5
Bachelor of Commerce	..	1
Bach. of Law & Letters	..	3
Master of Arts	..	14
Master of Science	..	5
Doctor of Philosophy	..	2
Post-Doctoral Work	..	1
Total	..	50

One of the students has received her B. A. degree at Cornell University in Ithaca, N. Y. 20 have their Bachelor's degree; 3 their L. L. B.; 19 their Master's degree; and 3 the Ph. D.

Table 8. Indian Universities Attended		
U. of Bombay	..	19
U. of Calcutta	..	8
U. of Madras	..	7
U. of Lucknow	..	3
Osmania University	..	3
U. of Nagpur	..	2
U. of Patna	..	2
U. of Travancore	..	2
U. of Delhi	..	1
Benares University	..	1
Victoria Jubilee Institute	..	1
None (Cornell Univ.)	..	1
Total	..	50

The first three named universities in the table above were the first to be established in India by the British, and it is perhaps only natural, therefore, that the largest representation should come from them.

Table 9. Year Degree Taken				
1931	..	1	1942	.. 5
1935	..	1	1943	.. 4
1936	..	2	1944	.. 4
1937	..	1	1945	.. 5
1938	..	2	1946	.. 11
1940	..	1	1947	.. 7
1941	..	4	1948	.. 2*
Total				.. 50

*1 at Cornell

There is a 17 year span between the first graduate and the last who are now in

the United States. Half of the group of fifty were graduated within the last four years. *i. e.*, since 1945.

Table 10. Field of Study in India

Business Administration	..	1
Chemistry	..	5
Chemical Engineering	..	1
Civil Engineering	..	2
Commerce	..	1
Education	..	2
English Literature	..	3
Electrical Engineering	..	4
Law	..	1
Mathematics	..	2
Metallurgical Engineering	..	1
Philosophy	..	3
Physical Education	..	1
Physics	..	3
Psychology	..	5
Social Sciences	..	13
(History, Economics, Political Science)		
Textiles	..	1
Total*	..	49

*1 took no work in India. Got her B. S. in Home Economics at Cornell.

From this Table we see that three students took their degrees in business; 13 in the sciences—chemistry, physics and psychology; 8 in engineering—chemical, civil, electrical and metallurgical; 18 in the social sciences—history, economics, political science, and philosophy; 3 in English literature; 1 in law; 3 in education.

Table 11. Field of Study in the U. S.

Broadcasting	..	1
Business Administration	..	4
Chemistry	..	2
Education	..	11
Engineering	..	15
Forestry	..	1
International Relations	..	6
Mathematical Statistics	..	1
Physics	..	2
Psychology	..	3
Social Sciences	..	4
(Econ., Geog., Social., Home Econ.)		
Total	..	50

It is enlightening to see how the fields of study have changed, sometimes radically,

with what was previously pursued in India. The subjects studied in the United States by the Indian and Pakistani students are an index of their two countries' needs today. Only 4 are taking work in what may be properly termed the social sciences, and even these are vital for the emerging new status—home economics, sociology, economics and geography. Nearly a third are in the engineering field; a fifth are in education; and the balance in the pure and applied sciences. The students are sincere in their desire to apply the formal education they are getting to the practical goals for revitalizing Pakistan and India.

Table 12. Under Whose Auspices Studying Here

Government Scholars	..	13
Private Means	..	37
Total		50

The Governments of India and Pakistan have sent about one-half of the students to this country for study, paying their passage to and from home, tuition, books and living expenses, with the understanding that upon their return to their home country, they will serve their government in some public work. The remaining half of the students are here through their own efforts. Many are well-to-do, several have won private scholarships, others have borrowed and mortgaged their future earnings in order to study here.

Table 13. Professions

Students	..	22
Teachers	..	16
Inspectors of Schools	..	3
Social Worker	..	1
Journalist	..	1
Engineers	..	7
Electrical	..	2
Radio	..	1
Civil	..	1
Textile	..	1
Mechanical	..	1
Industrial	..	1
Total	..	50

Who are these students? What did they do while in India? 22 were students; 19 were in the teaching field, primarily on the college level; 7 were engineers and 2 were in the social field.

Table 14. Degree Working For in the U.S.

No degree	..	4
Bachelor of Science	..	3
Master of Arts or Science	..	22
Doctor of Education	..	9
Doctor of Philosophy	..	10
Post-Doctoral	..	2
Total	..	50

Only three are doing under-graduate work, while two are on the post-Doctoral level. Nearly half are aiming for the Master's degree, while two-fifth are working for the doctorate.

Table 15. Universities Attending in the U.S.

Columbia	..	23
Teachers College	..	15
New York University	..	3
Brooklyn Polytechnic	..	2
R.C.A. Institute	..	2
Syracuse	..	1
Renselaer Polytechnic	..	1
Cornell	..	1
University of Maine	..	1
University of Michigan	..	1
Total	..	50

45 of the students are in residence at New York City institutions of higher learning. The remaining five were interviewed during a visit to New York.

Table 16. Time Spent in the U. S.

Months	Number
3-6	17
7-12	9
13-18	12
19-24	4
25-30	3
31-36	4
37-41	1
Total	.. 50

A breakdown shows that 20 of the students are here less than one year; 22 have been here between one and two years; and 8

have been here between two and three and one-half years. Thus, the average time spent in the United States for the fifty students is one year and three months.

A general conclusion of the above statistics show that the average Indian interviewed was 26 years old, a single, caste-Hindu male, who has received either a Bachelor's or Master's degree within the last five years. His field of study in India was in the arts; in this country, he pursues scientific subjects. He spent an average of 15 months in the United States.

With this background in mind, how, I asked myself, can I counsel these foreign students? What problems face them upon their arrival in this strange land? How can they most readily make their adjustment to the American college system of education?

In order to discover where their educational difficulties, if any, lay, I asked a set of three questions. The first was, "What are some of the difficulties you are experiencing in your school work?" The second was a corollary. "How can these difficulties be removed?" and the third, "What features of American education do you appreciate to the extent that you would want to introduce them to India or Pakistan?"

The intensive survey technique was used in order to secure this information. The questions were designed with the purpose of stimulating an informal conversation, in the course of which the person being interviewed would not only state his opinions but explain them in his own way. The questions are open—that is, instead of being asked to choose from a number of stated alternatives, the respondent is asked to give his own free answer, based on what he himself sees to be the alternatives. The interviewer's task was to encourage the respondent to enlarge on his answers, parti-

cularly by asking him, "Why do you think so?" The respondent's answers and comments are written down by the interviewer as nearly verbatim as possible; there are no checklists or predetermined categories of answers for the interviewee to check. The verbatim records so gathered were then assembled for detailed analysis. The findings are presented below.

Table 17. Difficulties Encountered
At American Universities

Examination and Quiz System ..	16
None ..	12
Large classes ..	10
Need for Orientation ..	8
No practical application of theory ..	6
Required readings too extensive ..	4
Fees too high ..	3
Curriculum ..	3
"Catalogue Courses" ..	3
Grading system ..	3
Language ..	3
Classes not homogeneous ..	2
Courses too rigid ..	1
Long Class sessions ..	1
Too much school work ..	1
Semester too short ..	1
Inadequate teachers ..	1

Nearly one-third of the Indian students had the greatest difficulty in adjusting to the American examination system, which is considerably different from what he experiences "back home." There, he meets up with no examinations until he is ready to sit for his baccalaureate. This occurs after the student completes his first two years of study and again after his third or last year. If he fails any part of the exam, he washes out, wasting many years of his life. Thus, every effort is made to pass; despite this, a tragic number fail each year.

Naturally, when the Indian takes American examinations he meets up with two shocks: first, their frequency; secondly, the *kind* of examination given, *i.e.*, the objective, True-False type, rather than the subjective, essay variety, which is customary

with them. Here some of the typical comments made on this subject: "The quizzes are hard to grasp. We do not do well because we are not used to objective examinations; our forte is the essay type. In a sense, the examinations are easy and at the same time, difficult." "I can't get a good grade," said another, "because the technique of the examinations is so different. The objective tests are a shock to me. I am in the lower 10% here whereas in India I was in the upper 10%. It is frustrating and disheartening and humiliating. We are used to the essay type of examination." A third replied, "True-False tests are not a fair indication of a student's knowledge or capacity. Such a quiz does not give the student the opportunity to grasp the subject in wholes. It is too compartmentalized and piecemeal." Even more critical was the student who said that "the object of the American quizzes is simply to get the student by a particular quiz and nothing else. It is a crude memory test." These answers are typical of the feelings of resentment and frustration the True-False tests arouse in the Indian and Pakistani students, unused to the objective type examinations and the frequency with which they are given.

One-fifth of the students objected to the large size of the classes. It is "mass education. Our biggest class in India is only fifty. There is little or no contact between the professor and student here—not that we have it in India, but the *system* of education in the United States requires the student to know his instructor." "In a post-graduate school there should be more personal attention given to the student than is given here, due to over-size classes."

Six, or nearly one-eighth, of the students objected to the fact that they received no practical application to the theory they learned in the classroom. "I am here to

study plastics; yet I cannot get inside a plastic factory." The lectures refer to America and cannot be applied to India, which is another facet of this problem. "The courses are unrelated to my needs or to India's needs."

Three students were strenuous in voicing their feelings about the catalogues and bulletins published by the universities. "The courses are described very well in these catalogues but the students are deceived. We are compelled to choose a course relying almost solely on these descriptions and then we find the course differs from its description." "It is intellectually dishonest as well as financially embarrassing for many of us who are not rich."

The high tuition was censured by three of the Indians. "Fees are outrageously high. It is fleecing and furthermore, not democratic. Few Americans even can afford to pay such amounts." "The U.S. spends billions on war preparations; how about some for education?" one indignant student inquired.

These, then, are some of the highlights of the difficulties Indian students meet at American educational institutions. What is of considerable interest to note is that eight of these students perspicaciously recognized the need for an orientation period. Their comments are revealing insights into the Eastern mind. "I do not like the idea that the teacher is considered by the (American) students as their equal. This is pseudo-equality. Even in a democracy, the leader must have a higher stature. I am unused to this feeling of equality. It is accentuated too much." "I had difficulty," said another, "in adjusting to the new educational system—choosing for yourself what courses to take, learning what the confusing point system is all about and the seemingly haphazard schedule of classes."

Still a third stated that "we are accustomed only to lectures. The class discussions throw us off. I lost out at the beginning because I was so quiet."

Two others expressed their need for orientation on a different but equally important level. "We have to adjust," said one, "not only to a new system of education, but also to new foods and a new way of life. We have no family life; we must make a new social adjustment and a new sexual adjustment." The other expressed the necessity for meeting new arrivals at the train, boat or plane to help them with the initial orientation to this "half-mad and fantastic United States."

Table 18. Methods for Removing Education Difficulties

Smaller Classes to provide more contact between professors and students	.. 10
Change examinations system	.. 4
Lower fees	.. 3
Practical application to studies	.. 3
Better teachers	.. 2
Longer semester	.. 2
Better courses	.. 2
Honesty in the catalogues	.. 2
Daytime classes only	.. 1
Classes should be only 50 minutes	.. 1
Sequence between courses	.. 1
Drop "required" courses	.. 1
Drop electives	.. 1
Help in language difficulties	.. 1
Teacher more considerate	.. 1
Other miscellaneous	.. 1
None	.. 15

Twelve students claimed they had no difficulties studying at American educational institutions and thus had no suggestions for removing their non-existent troubles. Three others joined with them to form a bloc of nearly one-third, the largest group within the sample.

One-fifth, or 10, of the students laid their difficulties to the large size of the classes which whittled down the opportunity for contact with the instructor. "There should

be a different kind of grouping, developed either through smaller classes or on the tutorial system." One student went further and recommended that there be established a series of "smaller, more intimate universities, where the professor and student can really know one another." A third exclaimed, "One class I'm in has 300 students. I have never talked with the professor. He 'knows' me—and grades me—merely from two True-False tests given during the semester." "I'm disillusioned," one said, "because there is no intimate relationship between professor and student. Classes are so big; they should be restricted to a definite limited number." And going into it just a bit deeper, another respondent said, "Education is not just imparting information; it has a deeper connection with the students' lives. The professor should invite the student to his home." Only one student asked for special privileges for the foreign student in his first semester's residence at a university: "The instructor should be more considerate during this period."

The quality of instruction was criticized by two students. "Once a professor gives a course, he does not change, he merely gives the same material year after year. It is too mechanistic and mercenary. There is no human quality to the teaching."

The reverse side of the coin was posed in the answers to this question as compared with the previous one asked. Students should not be forced to rely on descriptions in college catalogues for selecting the courses they want. "There should be opportunity to discuss courses with the professors before taking them." "The descriptions should be accurate and honest, rather than the vague, hopeful things they are." On the matter of fees, "they should be reduced so that the average person can afford them. There may very well be a socializa-

tion of education to give everyone the opportunity to attend college." And, "It would help considerably if foreign students were allowed to work part-time to help defray expenses."

It is interesting to observe that whereas examinations were mentioned with greatest frequency—16 times—by the students as giving them the greatest difficulty, *only three felt they should be changed*. One preferred writing term papers rather than taking the quizzes, "if grades are needed." The second preferred the essay type examination for all courses. And the third suggested this plan: "Half of the examinations should be set up by the instructor concerned; the other half by some outside person; and just a number should be given on the "blue book" so that the professor does not know whose paper he is reading."

Table 19. Aspects of American Education Indian Students Would Like to Introduce to India and Pakistan

1. Examination system	.. 24
2. System of free electives	.. 7
3. Class discussions	.. 7
4. Variety of courses	.. 9
5. Homework assignments	.. 6
6. Night schools	.. 5
7. Practical application of theory	.. 5
8. Decentralized administration	.. 4
9. Experience curriculum	.. 4
10. The point system	.. 4
11. Contact between instructor and student	.. 4
12. Cooperative spirit among students	.. 3
13. University spirit	.. 3
14. Respect for the individual student	.. 3
15. "Everything"	.. 3
16. Earning while learning	.. 2
17. Democratic classroom procedure	.. 2
18. Universal, free, compulsory education	.. 2
19. Term papers	.. 2
20. Guidance and counseling program	.. 1
21. Democratic school administration	.. 1
22. Well paid teachers	.. 1
23. Adult education programs	.. 1
24. Technical post-graduate institutions	.. 1
25. Disciplinary system	.. 1
26. Systematic promotion of professors	.. 1
27. Professors keeping up-to-date	.. 1
28. Vocational training schools	.. 1
29. Planning education according to needs and interests	.. 1
30. Nothing	.. 1

Although, as indicated above, 16 students found the American examination and quiz system most difficult to adjust to in the U.S. university system, 24 *stated that they liked it well enough to want to introduce it into the educational system of India and Pakistan.* This is readily understood when we know that the Indian student stands or falls by the results of one final examination he takes. "The Indian system is too burdened, too heavily weighed by the examination criterion. Emphasis should be on personal growth rather than examinations." "The objective type of examination gives a more objective picture of the student. Within a limited time, you can cover a wide range of topics." "In India, in order to get your degree, you have to answer questions covering two to four year's work. If you flunk it, you are through. Here, even if you flunk the final, you still have a chance of passing. The examinations in India are a traumatic experience. They are not good for the mental health of the students."

These answers are the composite opinion of the 24 who reacted in this fashion. Still others feel that "the weekly quizzes keep the good students on their toes throughout the year. Frequent quizzes extract the maximum amount of work from the student."

The next largest return of the sample—9—want to bring to India the wide variety of courses offered in American universities. "Every student has a chance to fit himself into the academic life in the U.S.," they said. "We in India too should have ample facilities and means for teaching every conceivable subject. The great range of courses enables students to obtain a real liberal education."

This ties up with the Indian students' appreciation of the system of free electives practised in the U. S. In their own country,

they are compelled to take a rigid set of courses which suppress and deaden the natural interests and needs of the individual student. "The whole atmosphere that envelops the Indian university is official, oppressive and authoritarian." The wide choice of courses in the U. S. gives the student a feeling of responsibility as well as the opportunity to take courses according to his liking. The regimentated aura disappears and in its place a responsible freedom is at work. As a result, "the student has a wider knowledge of related fields in the United States instead of an over-specialization in one or two fields as in India."

Another aspect of the democratic process in education appeals to the Indian and Pakistani, viz., class discussions. The Indian university system holds fast to the lecture system, with no opportunity for the student to participate. In the United States, to the students' amazement, "class discussions go so far that when a student asks a question and the instructor cannot answer it, the latter will say honestly that he does not know."

The thirty points listed in Table 19 are self-explanatory. There is just one point of particular interest for this paper that should be mentioned: one Indian student feels the need for a guidance and counseling program in India patterned after the United States model.

What can be inferred from the data obtained from these interviews? Two generalizations can be arrived at.

1. There is a deep-seated need for orientation for the Indian student while he is still in India. Too frequently, he picks an American educational institution which does not satisfy his needs and he finds it difficult, if not impossible, to change once he arrives here. He should be prepared, further, for

the American educational system: the class discussion method, type of examinations, democratic procedures, the point system, grades, instructor-student relationship, *etc.* This is no idle recommendation, for this goal can be readily attained; students leaving India are easily controlled and can be informed and prepared for what to expect upon arrival in the U.S.

2. There is a deep-seated need for better and continued guidance, once the student reaches American shores in order to provide him with more substantial experiences. Frequently, many of the Indians and Pakistanis pass judgements on American democratic processes and way of life without foundation in fact. The opportunity is not open for them, in many instances, to visit homes, to travel through the country, to inspect settlement houses, industrial plants,

art galleries and museums; schools and libraries, *etc.*

Were these factors properly handled, the foreign student would be able to make the adjustment to American life more quickly, readily and thoroughly, absorb the unique aspects of American democracy more advantageously, and thus benefit his stay in the U. S., and be able to return to his home with a truer picture than he might now obtain. When it is considered that there are about 1300 Indian and Pakistani students now at 150 university centers in the United States, with many destined to play a vital role in the new India and Pakistan, proper guidance and counseling for them becomes a matter of paramount importance and urgency, not only for the students but for the United States as well, for these are India's and Pakistan's destined leaders of tomorrow and it is well that they regard the U.S. highly in the crucial years to come.

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RE-ORGANISATION OF CHARITABLE TRUSTS

N. H. Pandia.

Considering the innumerable Charitable Trusts in our country and the vast sum of money involved, the author believes that it is of the utmost importance to have a complete re-organisation of these Trusts. To do away with maladministration and misappropriation of funds, the Tendolkar Committee recommended the constitution of a separate department entrusted with the supervision, regulation and control of public charities. Mr. Pandia examines the pros and cons of the scheme laid down by the above-mentioned Committee and calls upon public co-operation in this matter.

Mr. N. H. Pandia is practising as a solicitor in Bombay.

Under the general law, a person is entitled to deal with and dispose of his own property as he likes either during his life time or by will to operate after his death provided that the dealing or disposal is not forbidden by any specific provision of the law or is not against public policy.

It is one of the natural instincts of a civilised rational human being to give. The giving may be to the members of one's family, caste, community, country, or to the world. And the giving may be motivated by a belief that a gift ought to be made, in a fit place, at a fit time and to worthy persons and without desire for the fruit thereof; or, it may be made by a person grudgingly, or with the object of earning the fruit thereof by way of respect, honour, reverence, or for ostentation.

Whatever the motive, the giving to persons other than (or in some cases, in addition to) the members of one's family, is designated charity.

The true meaning of charity is love. "Learn to look with an equal eye upon all beings, seeing the one Self in all."¹ In course of time, however, the word lost much of its true meaning. It became degraded to mean "alms giving". Whereas charity should be an act of the will, founded on reason and piety, it became an act of emotion.

Goaded by emotion and frightened by approaching death, men hastened to sur-

render their properties to God for the good of their soul and for their own spiritual benefit, the gift "to endure so long as the Sun and Moon shine." *Krishnarpan* is defined by Wilson as a grant to a Brahman or a temple to propitiate Krishna. In a Waqf, the ownership is transferred to the Almighty. A similar conception is found in the "God's acre" of the English Country Church.

In all these grants, the human agency to carry on the administration "so long as the Sun and the Moon shine", is implicit and so there came into existence a large class of persons known as Mahants, Acharyas, Shebais, Pujaris, Gurus, Sevaks, *etc.*, who took upon themselves the administration of charities. The volume of these charities was so large and the chances of maladministration so great, that from the early times, kings in India felt called upon to exercise a certain amount of control (ranging from sanctioning the appointment of the Chief Officers to regulating the smallest item of expenditure) over the administration. There is historical evidence that at least since the time of King Ashoka (257 B.C.), Hindu kings exercised supervision and control over charitable institutions. In 256 B. C., Ashoka appointed censors of the law of piety (Dharma-Mahamatra); and in 242 B. C. he published a complete series of seven pillar edicts. These traditions of royal control continued among the Rajputs and the Maratha dynasties.

¹ The Geeta,

Indeed, public charities in India have traditionally enjoyed princely association. The association, besides acting as a check on maladministration, helped to fulfil another purpose: it conferred a status on public charities and directed the attention of charitable-minded citizens to the social needs of the times. And so we find the stream of charity under the wise guidance of Dharmadhikaris appointed by the State, slowly flowing into mundane channels like feeding the poor, tending the sick, providing caravansaries and dharmashalas, imparting knowledge, in short, contributing towards satisfying the basic human needs of food, shelter, clothing and education. From these it would not have been a far cry to the springing up throughout the land of Public Residential Universities, Hospitals, Sanatoria and the like, with finances provided from the pockets of charitably disposed citizens. But that was not to be. Princely interest gradually waned. The British Government was reluctant to unduly interfere with what was considered to be a mixed religio-social matter. And to the great loss of the nation, public charities practically ceased to fulfil any useful public function.

The ruins of deserted temples, Dharmashalas and Pathshalas, bear eloquent testimony to this lamentable state of affairs. In many cases, Dharmashalas meant to give rest to pilgrims, came to be used as cattle sheds; Annakshetras and Sadavrats meant to give food to Sadhus and Sants, fed only vagrants and vagabonds. Sanatoria housed only the trustees, their kith and kin and friends; hospitals for the poor came to be devoid of medical attention and care; and Panjrapoles meant to relieve the distress of suffering animals, became torture chambers. In a few instances, the trustees misappropriated trust funds, failed to keep proper accounts of the administration, mortgaged

and sold away trust properties at their sweet will, appointed their dependents as co-trustees, made loans to themselves and to friends, quarrelled among themselves and speculated with trust funds. In some instances they claimed the trust properties as their own, whilst in others, the objects of the trust ceased to exist or became obsolete and funds accumulated in the hands of the trustees, without fulfilling any useful purpose. The trust funds were wasted, for whilst poor women and children had not the means to cover their bodies, valuable clothes donated to the deity were used as wicks; whilst thousands were starving, rich foods offered to the deity by pious devotees, were being afterwards sold in the market.

Some public charities were so run as to swallow up even their capital investments. Individuals sought the office of trustees for the sake of social prestige, without possessing the slightest knowledge of their duties as trustees. Co-ordination of any kind among the public charities was woefully lacking. The very existence of many *sarvajanic* institutions disappeared from public memory.

When it is remembered that in the Province of Bombay alone, prior to its recent enlargement, and that too among Hindus (including Jains) only, there were 127 public trusts at least for Sadavrats and Annakshetras, 92 trusts for giving caste dinners, 133 for Dharmashalas, 317 for education and hostels, 23 for libraries, 94 for giving medical relief, 33 for orphanages, 52 for maintaining Sanatoria, 48 for feeding mendicants, 63 for relief to birds and beasts and 133 for the relief of poverty; and when it is further remembered that the funds of these charities amount to over eight and a half crores of rupees (part of which consists of ornaments, bullion, shares of joint stock companies, loans, mortgages and cash, all easily disposable in the market) with an annual income of over one crore

and twenty eight lakhs of rupees, the reader will have some idea of the magnitude of the problem, and the urgent need of taking effective steps to see that the public trust is not abused and that public interest is well and truly served.

During the British regime, several enactments were passed with a view to having some sort of control over the administration of public charities. It is here necessary to refer only to the Religious Endowments Act 1863, the Charitable Endowments Act 1890, Sections 92 and 93 of the Civil Procedure Code and the Charitable and Religious Trusts Act 1920. None of these however, were found to be adequate to meet the needs of the situation. In 1935, the Bombay Public Trusts Registration Act was passed. This Act, for the first time, by compelling registration, helped to bring to the notice of the public, *inter alia* the existence, objects and funds of public charitable trusts and the names of the trustees of such trusts. But in practice, this Act failed to cure the evil. The authorities who were placed in charge of the administration of the Act, had other important work to do, and moreover no adequate machinery was provided in the Act for holding proper enquiries into the administration of the trusts and bringing the dishonest trustees to book.

The first practical step in the Province of Bombay in this direction was taken by the Government of Bombay by appointing a Committee under the Chairmanship of the Honourable Mr. Justice S. R. Tendolkar to investigate into the question of the administration and management of trusts and endowments in the Province, for public purposes (i) of a religious nature intended solely for the benefit of the Hindu Community (including Jains) and (ii) of a charitable nature excluding those intended solely for the benefit of communities other

than Hindus and Jains. The Report of the Committee has been published and those interested can obtain a copy of the Report from the Government Central Press, Bombay, for four annas.

The Committee has the good fortune to have placed before it intelligent public opinion on the whole subject. That opinion was an indication of the depth of public feeling and of the extent of the support that Government may count upon the public in the measure that it may be advised to adopt in the matter. Inasmuch as legislative enactments however beneficially intended, lose much of their utility if they are opposed to the public sentiment, the evidence led before the Committee has its own importance in predetermining success or failure of the legislative measures that may be adopted by the State for the reorganisation of public charities generally and Hindu charities in particular.

Dissatisfaction with the management of public charities and with the existing provisions for checking maladministration was expressed before the Committee. It was generally felt that there was need of directing public charities so as to contribute towards fulfilling human social needs. Facilities for education and improvement of the health of the poorer sections of the public were deemed to be deserving of a high priority among charitable objects. Co-ordination of charities having similar objects was considered desirable in theory, although doubt was expressed as to its practicability under existing circumstances. There was a general consensus of opinion as to the need of Government control over public charities, although there was a difference of opinion as to the extent of the control. It was feared that undue interference by the State may dry up the source of public charities. In the matter of re-organisation

of public charities, therefore, it was considered that a policy of persuasion would yield better results than one of coercion.

The Committee took careful note of these views in framing its recommendations. It can be claimed that whilst yielding nothing where principles are involved, the Committee has evolved a scheme for the re-organisation of public charitable trust falling within the scope of the reference that may well prove acceptable to the public and evoke their enthusiastic acceptance and intelligent co-operation. In any event, this scheme is the only constructive proposal that holds the field, and as such deserves the careful attention and cordial support of the more intelligent sections of the people, as well as the long suffering multitude of deserving beneficiaries of public charities. If the scheme remains still-born, there may not be another one for many years to come and the administration of public funds would in the meanwhile be doomed to go from bad to worse.

The broad features of the scheme are that it eliminates wasteful and time-consuming litigation regarding public charities; it provides for advice and guidance to the trustees in all matters relating to the trusts, it discourages undue accumulations of trust funds and encourages their use for public charitable purposes. It widens the definition of public charities so as to meet present day social and economic needs of the nation in consonance with the ancient text यतोऽभ्युदयो निश्चयसः सिद्धिः स धर्मः । धारयत इति धर्मः ॥ and it descends with a heavy hand on mal-administration. Last but not the least, it makes available to the public, without cost or at nominal cost, all reasonable information about the existence, objects, funds and administration of public charitable trusts. Any person will be at liberty under the scheme to inspect without charge, the complete register of trusts, the classified list of

trusts arranged according to objects, and all documents required to be filed, and may obtain copies on payment of reasonable charges for the same. Publicity and inviting and facilitating public interest in the administration of public trusts, is indeed, the keynote of the Scheme.

The Machinery to Achieve these Objects.—The scheme recommends the constitution of a separate department entrusted with the supervision, regulation and control of public charities.

There will be three classes of officers responsible for the administration of the scheme, viz., the Charity Commissioner, the Deputy Charity Commissioners and the Inspectors. The Charity Commissioner and the Deputy Charity Commissioners would be persons qualified to hold the office of a District Judge and should be recommended by the High Court for appointment, and the Inspectors would be persons qualified to hold office as Civil Judges.

(a) *Charity Commissioner.*—The Charity Commissioner would have general supervision over all trusts; power to settle schemes for the administration of charities, to remove trustees who are unfit or personally incapable of discharging or who persistently make a default in discharging their duties as trustees or are insolvent or who fail to attend meetings of the trustees continuously for six months, or are guilty of a breach of trust, or are convicted of an offence involving moral turpitude. The Commissioner would have authority to take charge of trust property in danger of being lost or misappropriated and vest it in new trustees to be appointed, he would be entitled to call for information from trustees regarding the trust properties; he would be entitled to enter trust premises for the purpose of enquiry, to decide disputes as to precedence between religious functionaries and their

right to offerings; and to decide any alleged right of entry in any part of a religious institution, he would have the power to declare a trust fund to have ceased to be of public utility or benefit or otherwise adequately provided for, and where the object of the trust has become impracticable of achievement or where a trust has unused surplus property available, he may direct its applications to other charitable objects. If the charity happens to be a sectional charity, he may apply the fund for another object for the benefit of such section (unless the majority of the trustees agree to their application to a wider section of the Community or to the general public) and he may use his good offices to bring about co-ordination between trusts having similar objects. A person aggrieved by an order of the Charity Commissioner in any of the more important of the above mentioned matters, would have the right of appeal to a Court of Law.

(b) *Deputy Charity Commissioners.*—There would be such number of Deputy Charity Commissioners for regional areas as the Local Government may decide. They would have powers relating to registration, audit and other administrative powers. In addition, they would have such judicial powers as the Charity Commissioner may consider it necessary or proper to delegate to them. The Deputy Charity Commissioners would have power to suspend a trustee pending enquiry as to alleged breach of trust by him, to appoint a trustee to fill up a vacancy among the trustees in cases where the document of trust failed to provide for such a contingency; where the trust deed was silent as to allocation of the income of the trust property to different objects mentioned therein, the Deputy Commissioner would have the power to allocate the income to the different objects.

The Deputy Charity Commissioner would have the power to fix the standard scale of expenditure relating to the institution; if a trust accumulates the income, he may direct its use for charitable purposes.

(c) *Inspectors.*—The Inspectors would be required to know book-keeping and accounts and at least two provincial languages. It would be their duty, acting under instructions from the Charity Commissioner or the Deputy Charity Commissioner to procure information about the trusts and their administration, and for that purpose, they would be authorised to require attendance before them, of trustees, their agents, depositories of any properties or funds of the trust, beneficiaries of any trust and persons having the possession or control of any documents concerning the trust or any of its properties. The Inspectors shall be entitled to examine and search the registers and records of every court of law and every public registry and office of records. In brief, the function of the Inspectors would be to collect the requisite information for the purpose of enabling the Charity Commissioner and the Deputy Charity Commissioners to discharge their functions.

Registration of Charities.—The Charity Commissioner shall maintain a register of all trusts. Separate registers shall be maintained by each Deputy Charity Commissioner for each regional area, also a classified list of trusts arranged according to the objects of trust—open for inspection without charge. All trust deeds shall be compulsorily registrable.

Trustees, Their Duties and Powers.—It shall be the duty of every trustee to see that the document of trust is duly registered, to furnish particulars of the properties of the trust and to promptly report any changes that may take place therein, to the Commissioner. It shall be his duty to keep regular

accounts of the trust, to have the accounts made up annually, to get them duly audited, and to send the audited Balance Sheet and Income and Expenditure Account together with the Auditor's Report, to the Commissioner. If the auditor reports illegal or improper expenditure or failure to recover dues, or loss or waste caused by the neglect or default of the trustee, the trustee should report to the Commissioner what action he has taken on the report, and the Deputy Charity Commissioner may require the trustee to make good the default. Before a trustee can sell, mortgage, or let out for a period exceeding three years any trust property, he should have to obtain the previous sanction of the Commissioner. He should maintain a depreciation fund and a separate fund from which to carry out ordinary repairs to trust properties. The trustee should recover the income of trust properties as it falls due, and not wipe off or compromise any claims of the trust without the previous permission of the Deputy Charity Commissioner. If any portion of the income of the trust properties remains unused, the trustee should submit to the Deputy Charity Commissioner proposals for utilising the surplus or any portions thereof for the benefit, improvement or amelioration of the trust. For safeguarding trust property, he should invest trust funds in authorised securities, the script being stamped "Trust securities" and being non-negotiable except with the leave of the Charity Commissioner.

Remuneration of Trustees.—This point was not examined by the Tendolkar Committee. There is a difference of opinion as to whether there should be provided some sort of monetary appreciation of the services rendered by persons accepting the office of trust and administering public charities. On the one hand, it is urged

that it is contrary to public policy that a trustee should have financial interest in the trust under his charge or that he should make any financial gain out of it, that the acceptance of the office of a trustee should be purely by way of a token of regard for the donor or acceptance of a public duty; that there is and will arise no dearth of persons wishing to act as trustees of public charities, entirely in an honorary capacity; that many persons deserving owing to their status or means or desirous owing to their intimate relationship with the donor, to be appointed trustees of public charities, would refuse to accept any trust coupled with monetary remuneration for rendering the services; that the receipt of remuneration would reduce the status of trustees and that therefore a provision for remuneration would act as a deterrent rather than an inducement to accept the office of a trustee. It is contended that any necessity for remunerating trustees has not been proved.

On the other hand, it is urged that whereas a trustee is by law entitled to be reimbursed every pie that he properly spends for carrying on the administration of the trust, there is no reason why he should not be reimbursed for something much more valuable—*viz.* his time, attention, energies and abilities that he expends on the administration of the trust. The obligation on a trustee not to derive the slightest monetary benefit from the trust, prevents deserving persons (particularly, social workers) of moderate means from accepting or being entrusted with the office of a trustee, inasmuch as except with such small monetary return they may receive from holding the office of a trustee, they would be unable to spare the necessary time and energies for the proper management of the trust; that consequently, only wealthy persons are deemed fit to be

appointed trustees; that such persons having no pecuniary interest in the trust, are apt to become negligent or leave the management to their staff; that there is at present a dearth of willing and proper trustees, that, there is nothing inherently improper in a trustee being paid for his services; that a system of remunerating trustees of public charities, already exists in some of the States in the U. S. A.; that the management of public charities should be placed on the same realistic footing as carrying on any business organisation; that in fact in India, the Official Trustee and Banks acting as executors and trustees do charge commission for administering public charities, and are authorised or allowed by the law to do so; that monetary recompense for time and trouble spent should not be considered as being against public policy; and that the making of some slight return, *e. g.*, by way of percentage on the income of the trust, would not really amount to remuneration. In any case, an enabling provision should be made in the law, sanctioning and authorising recoupment of this kind from the trust funds, according to a scale to be laid down. The point as to remuneration is open for being dealt with by the legislature.

The evidence led before the Tendolkar Committee showed that incalculable loss has been caused in the past to countless generations of deserving beneficiaries, at the hands of the incompetent, negligent, ignorant or dishonest custodians of trust properties. The wishes, the aspirations, even the injunctions of large-hearted and generous donors have, in many instances, been disregarded after their death. The present social discontent amongst the deserving poor can partly be laid to misuse or non-use of public charitable trust funds and trust income. The Charity Commissioner if appointed, will find overwhelming proof in

this regard in the evidence led before the Tendolkar Committee.

Apprehension has been expressed in some quarters that the appointment of a single Charity Commissioner, and the vesting of considerable powers in him, may prove inimical to the growth of public charities, a damper on persons who would otherwise be willing to act as trustees, and a beginning of regimentation of public charities, leading to complete control by the State over them. The removal of public charities and the administration thereof from the jurisdiction of the Court, is deprecated and it is said that the existing law is quite adequate for the protection of public charities.

The reply is that experience has demonstrated the inadequacy of the present law to effectively protect public charities from abuse, maladministration and waste, that as a study of the recommendations made by the Tendolkar Committee will amply show, the jurisdiction of the Courts is proposed only to be restricted, not removed; and that if the office of the Charity Commissioner and his departments is conducted properly, there is no reason to anticipate autocracy.

It is indeed correct that if the recommendations of the Committee are acted upon, much will depend on the choice of the person to hold the office of Charity Commissioner. The machinery that may be set up will be on its test for some years to come. The departments of the Charity Commissioner and his deputies will have to function with considerable tact and with a due sense of priorities and proportion. Red tapism will have to be shed. The departments will have to go out to win the confidence and co-operation, not only of the trustees, but also of intending donors and of the public so that the stream of charity may not cease to flow. Given these

conditions, one may confidently look forward to the almost complete re-organisation of public charities in the Province, within ten years from the recommendations being put into operation.

There are seven good reasons for entertaining such hope:

- (1) The true objects of public charity according to modern needs are being increasingly understood by the public;
- (2) Already there are substantial funds devoted to public charities;
- (3) The number of persons who make public trusts through purely spiritual love, is steadily decreasing both in quantity and in the collective value of the gifts;
- (4) The number of persons who make public trusts to come to the help of less fortunately placed fellowmen, is increasing, if not in quantity, yet certainly in the collective value of their gifts;
- (5) The chief worry of prospective donors regarding the honest and efficient administration of the funds of the trust to be created by them, when the donors happen to be no more, will to a great extent be realised, and intending donors will have reasonable assurance that every pie of the funds set apart for a public charitable purpose, will be applied for the purpose selected by them, and if that becomes impossible of performance or impracticable, then for some other public charitable purpose, (and in all cases, a well defined public charitable purpose) instead of being frittered away by dishonest or negligent trustees to the detriment of the objects which the trusts were intended to serve.
- (6) The State appears to be willing to lose no time in delegating the control and regulation of public charities to an independent semi-judicial authority and appears to be alive to the necessity of great care in making the appointments.
- (7) Last and not the least, there is a growing volume of public opinion against public funds remaining dormant or being misapplied. In the last analysis, this is the opinion that will count. Indeed the growth and strengthening of public opinion and co-operation is the best hope for securing the effective working of public charitable institutions in India.

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INDUSTRIES' CONTRIBUTION TO POSITIVE HEALTH

M. N. GUPTA

In this article the author carefully analyses the scope of industries' contribution to the achievement of what he terms as *positive health*. The author who is a specialist in public health rightly observes that "our approach in the past has been towards the prevention of disease rather than the building up of really good health." He sets forth different schemes which industry should undertake for the betterment of its workers' health. "To-day there is immediate necessity for increased productivity and the means to effect this are to our hand: viz. the improvement to the health of the working population, which will give the needed impulse to the wheels of industry."

Dr. M. N. Gupta is Deputy Chief Adviser Factories (Medical), Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

The year 1945 heralded a unique event in the Health Planning in India when the Report of the Health Survey and Development Committee was completed.

The Committee in its report stressed that no health plan can provide the desired advance in public health unless simultaneous progress can be made in the provision of healthy environment for the community. Recommendations of that kind are of great encouragement to administrators, politicians and the public alike. The forward-looking policy of the Report has received tributes from all concerned.

In the Report one finds the changing outlook of the medical profession towards the object of Medical Service in the country, which has been defined as being the provision of a system of medical service directed towards the achievement of a *positive health*, of the prevention of disease and of the relief of sickness. What do we mean by this new emphasis on "positive" health? The constitution of the World Health Organisation (WHO) gives the following definition of health: "Health is a state of complete physical and social and mental well-being, not just the absence of disease or infirmity". The importance of thinking in terms of health and not only in terms of disease is being increasingly realised by all. Our approach in the past has been towards the prevention of disease rather

than the building up of really good health. The progress of preventive medicine in India although it has been slow, has achieved marvellous results in the fight against tropical diseases.

In the organisation of medical relief for the people, the State has undertaken the major share in making such provisions. In any planned effort to raise the standard of the health of a people, the State has an important part, but not by any means the only part to play. For the building up of a healthy nation certain essentials are needed, *e. g.* decent standard of living and housing and adequate food, decent working conditions, including reasonable hours of work, facilities for recreation and freedom from reasonable causes of anxiety.

It is obvious that industry too can contribute to achieve this plan of positive health. The lives of vast masses of people are affected by the growth of industrialisation—not only in the economic field but in their physical field. Modern industry creates an environment in which are found lurking a host of hitherto unknown diseases. It uses a large number of toxic agents and dusts to which the workers are exposed. It harbours, damp, poorly ventilated, inadequately illuminated, and hot and humid factories. The processes carried out in them are fatiguing and often hazardous. It has created newer problems for work-people in

all forms of employment, problems of industrial relations, housing, transport, nutrition, job placement, all of which cause unnecessary expenditure of energy and bring more discomfort to the worker. The growth of industrialisation has lowered his standard of living. Food, clothing and housing facilities have not improved. There is a deterioration in the hygienic conditions and the medical care provided to him is still of doubtful adequacy. Measures of social security are only beginning to appear on the horizon.

In view of what has been said above it is felt that industry should take more interest in its workers and give its powerful support to any well-considered scheme for raising the level of health of its workers.

Medical Problems of Industry.—The first approach to this problem is an understanding of the nature and purpose of industry. The essential *raison d'être* of industry remains unaltered—the rendering of service to the community.

Industrialisation causes large-scale transformation in the working and living conditions with consequent prodigious effect upon the people's health. Social and legal measures cannot keep pace with the unprecedented needs of large-scale urbanisation, haphazard planning and growth of industrialisation.

Since the beginning of World War II and more so after the year 1946 there has been a spurt in legislation and activity relating to industrial problems and problems of Industrial Health. This activity has been due to two causes. In the first place this has been due to increasing recognition of the large number of deaths, injuries, deaths caused by occupational hazards and the increasing strength of organised labour, which are recognised as implications of

national importance. In the second place, the rapidly developing technological changes in industrial processes, in materials, and advances in industrial medical service in the countries in the West have been found to show their repercussions on the public opinion in this country.

From the point of view of the industrialist the medical problems in industry present themselves in three forms:

- (a) Problems of the working environment,
- (b) Problems of the work,
- (c) Problems of the worker.

Problems of the Working Environment.—The Factories Act 1948 places the onus for compliance, with the occupier of the factory, for the various provisions relating to the protection of the worker. It is this underlying basic principle which must be clearly grasped by the industrialist if he is desirous of making his contribution to the attainment of "positive" health in industry. To achieve the above end the following provisions of the Factories Act are required to be carried out by the "occupier":

- (a) *Approval, Licensing and Registration of Factories.*

(b) *Notice of occupation of any premises.*—This is necessary for the design of most of the factory buildings and lay-out of machinery is unsatisfactory for the nature of the work done there.

Cleanliness and Lighting.—Greater use of electrical appliances and equipment in the design of factories permits more efficient layouts. It also helps in good house-keeping in plants with more orderly and safer storage and displaces grimy hazardous display of stores.

Disposal of waste and Effluents.—In order to ensure that their disposal on land

or in any large body of water does not produce effects detrimental to the health and welfare of the community, the industry must obtain full co-operation and advice of the local health authorities regarding the manner and place of discharge of the trade effluents. Wastes from tanneries, cotton bleach works, paper, gas-works, dairies, china-clay works, *etc.* require special methods of disposal to render the effluent harmless.

Minimum requirements of sanitation and health.—It would be unthinkable that a father who undertakes the care of a family should be expected to have dealings with the children only after illness has occurred. It is clear that he must make arrangements to take over the many duties associated with parenthood. The same argument holds good for industry which seeks to employ workers under a single roof and working in a factory compound.

Industry must have knowledge about the homes and working conditions of the men, women and children under its care. For the purpose of achieving this end, it must avoid over-crowding of factory departments provide drinking water, latrines and urinals, spittoons, washing facilities, facilities for storing and drying of clothes, facilities for sitting, canteens, shelters, rest rooms and lunch rooms, creche, facilities which every home provides, or a worker has a right to be provided in his place of work.

Industry should be prepared to accept its shares of responsibility in this manner and lend its aid by both precept and example. Industry must become introspective, and take interest in health and physical fitness of its employees.

Industry must not forget that it creates and contributes to many problems of community services as follows:—

The problem of transportation of workers, industrial fatigue consequent on above, housing, by attracting labour from the villages in congested towns, water supply, milk and food control, sewage disposal, garbage and refuse disposal, control of insects and rodents, insect and germ-borne diseases, malaria, plague, typhoid, cholera, *etc.*

Industry must give its powerful and unconditional support to the local health authorities in their schemes for raising the standard of environmental hygiene services and community hygiene services. Without such voluntary support no local health authorities can ever hope to improve the hygiene and community preventive health services.

Problems of the Work.—The present day machine age has created new industrial environment problems, hitherto unknown diseases have been brought to light, toxic agents have multiplied, hazardous processes have increased, techniques and processes have exaggerated the problems of work. Industry must have a good conception of the nature of the job that the man does. Unfortunately, industry in the past has concentrated its attention more on the work that the machine does than on the man who works the machine. It is considered that industry in its schemes for the health will pay due consideration to the following points regarding the work of the employee.

Nature of work carried out by each individual—if it is shift work, night work, work of arduous or monotonous nature.

The physical demands of the work, demands upon muscular and skeletal systems, in terms of gross or fine movements, weight lifting, standing in awkward positions, climbing, bending, kneeling, *etc.*

Strain on sight, hearing.

Work above or below ground level.

In order to safeguard the health of the workers, industry must introduce mechanisation of production by installing automatic machines for loading and unloading, introducing conveyer or belt system, using more hoists, lifts and cranes, mechanical and electrical safety devices to prevent accidents. Bodily movements involving muscular strain can be eliminated by motion studies and fatigue can be reduced by introducing adequate rest pauses. Pre-placement examinations can eliminate the potentially risky individual.

The need for protective appliances or clothing as on work, on disintegrating machines, welding, lead fumes, rolling mills and rivetting, work before furnaces, in tanneries and chemicals *etc.*, is an increasing need which industry must provide to safeguard the health of workers.

The element of sudden danger or insidious danger from explosions or slow absorption of lead dust, silica dust, *etc.* Industry must provide for the necessary preventive measures for these.

Individual or team work—Industry is apt to underrate the value of having the whole man instead of only his hands engaged in the enterprise. Industry must provide for his mind and spirit and not only for his physical capabilities. Industry has to adapt itself to the mental and moral make-up of the workman of to-day.

The responsibility for the work or the safety of fellow workmen—Industry can contribute to the elimination of risks when it has been planned in terms of the physical and psychological potentialities of the workers.

Problems of the Worker.—They are as follows:

Nutrition of the Work-people.—It is as yet too early to say with any precision what part the canteens in industry have played in the maintenance of the health of the workers. We have yet to collect data on the value of canteen meals. The Factory Act 1948 has now laid down a statutory obligation on industry to provide canteen or canteens where more than 250 workers are ordinarily employed. The nutritionist believes that nothing would do more to bring us nearer to our objective of positive health than a planned scheme for raising the level of nutrition of the work-people undertaken by industry throughout the country. Industry must encourage establishment of more and more works canteens.

Education of the Worker.—Industry needs much more carefully designed and much more extensive schemes in education of its workers in all matters that relate to industrial health. Factory cinema, factory press and factory broadcasting, can make health news and health education go to every worker. Industry must be prepared to accept its share of responsibility in this matter to raise the level of literacy in the country.

Medical-aid for Work-people—The purpose of such a service is not to provide first-aid but to provide continuity of medical care of the people for whom the factory is a crucial part of their environment where the conditions of work determine the extent to which health or disease prevails in the work people.

Industry has in the past been interested in patching up the injured worker and its conception of industrial medicine has remained circumscribed. Industry must keep pace with the increasing scope of industrial medicine which now embraces broader aspects of health promotion and sickness prevention. Industry must give increasing

recognition to the industrial physician's merit as technical adviser and give him a proper status to work as a colleague with the management.

Use of Scientific Discoveries.—Nothing pains the research worker so much as to see complete apathy of industry to collaborate in putting into effect the discoveries, suggestions and recommendations of scientists in the field of preventive health services. Industry should in future show more collaboration with discoveries as they are made.

Women Workers.—In the organised industries of India such as factories, mines and plantations, out of a possible total labour force of about 3,022,436 persons 492,236 or 16.3 per cent of the total are women. These women combine the functions of home makers and wage earners. If industry gives recognition to this dual function of women, it must provide for services to enable women to discharge their dual functions while maintaining a level of maximum health.

Sickness Absenteeism.—Records of sickness absenteeism are useful to the community in the sense that an epidemiological assay could be made of the disease in the community and methods of control devised. Industry

can help the health administration to a great extent if a system of recording sickness absenteeism is introduced for the employees.

It is highly desirable that industry should volunteer to utilise the existing hygiene services in the country and initiate studies of problems of industrial fatigue, industrial psychiatry and occupational diseases.

Industry in its search for maximum production has not attempted to bring down accidents and disease rates by instituting safety programmes. There is a conspicuous absence of safety supervision in hazardous occupations. The small industry has shown complete neglect of industrial health service as there is general lack of trained technical staff and it is busy in the problems of sales, finance, and production. Industry is afraid of the immediate cost of establishment of any preventive service. The concept of the conservation of human resources has not at all been incorporated into industrial management policy.

To-day there is immediate necessity for increased productivity and the means to effect this are to our hand: *viz.* the improvement to the health of the working population, which will give the needed impulse to the wheels of industry.

SOME EXPERIENCES OF CHILD GUIDANCE WORK

INDIRA RENU

In this article the writer vividly describes her rich and varied first-hand experiences of handling and treating children with personality disorders referred to the Child Guidance Clinic conducted by the Tata Institute of Social Sciences at the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children, Parel, Bombay. The writer, who has experience and knowledge of the Clinic work, analyses different cases and diagnoses their real mental and emotional ailments for correct treatment. She pleads for adequate educational and recreational facilities as a basic need for the child's full and proper development.

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During the ten years of its existence the Child Guidance Clinic of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences has had a variety of cases referred to it from all classes of people and from various sources. Referrals have come mostly from social agencies and institutions like the Hospitals, the Juvenile Court, the Children's Homes and Schools. Referrals by parents are comparatively few. Some of the more well-to-do and educated parents hesitate to send their children to the Clinic, as a large number of children who come from the poorer class of people are referred. When, however, the problem is pressing and they find that this service is not available elsewhere, they decide to come.

From the very beginning of the Clinic there has been a tendency on the part of the referring agencies to refer rather a large proportion of mentally retarded children. For some years the Clinic was used by the Juvenile Court for psychological service and certifying mentally defective children by the Clinic Psychiatrist before admission in the Home for mentally defective children. Now the Juvenile Court has psychological and psychiatric services attached to it. But still a large number of mentally retarded children are being referred to the Clinic for consultation by other agencies. Although the Clinic staff have been doing their best to educate referring agencies regarding the type of problems that can benefit by Child

Guidance treatment, the general impression that the Clinic can treat mentally retarded children seems still to prevail. This is partly due to a confusion in the minds of people between mental deficiency and emotional disturbances, and largely due to the lack of psychological services and lack of adequate facilities for the education or institutionalisation of the mentally retarded child.

Child Guidance service is a new type of service. The referring agency itself in most cases may not have a clear idea of the nature of service the Clinic has to offer, much less the parent who comes through them. Occasionally an agency may give a rough idea in terms of need for several attendances, parental participation, *etc.* but that does not always help the parent to know what he is going in for. The nature of service expected by the parent depends quite a lot on the agency from where he is referred. The parent sent by the Juvenile Court expects in most cases the Clinic to play an authoritative role of keeping a check on the child. He may tell the child that the Clinic attendance is a part of the punishment. He may expect the Clinic to threaten, control and put the child right without the parent having a part in doing anything for the child. The parent coming from the hospital or sent by a medical practitioner, especially when the child has a psychosomatic disorder like pain in the

chest or stomach, difficulty in breathing *etc.* may expect expert medical advice and treatment and may not be prepared to just let the child come and play and talk in the playroom for an indefinite length of time. To interpret to the parent in terms that he can understand about the nature of the service is the task of the Social Worker. What is essential at the outset is the readiness of the parent to undertake a treatment the length of time of which one can tell and which requires of the parent to send or bring the child to the Clinic regularly, once or twice a week, and also to come himself for interviews with the Social Worker during that period of time. There are many questions that parents want to know to get a clearer idea of the service. Some of these are: What will be the child doing inside the Clinic? Will he just play? How will that help him? Why do I need to come so often? Is it not enough if the child comes by himself? What do you want from me? How long will we have to come? It is only when all these questions have been answered that the parent is in a position to decide for himself whether he wants to use the Clinic service. The most important deciding factor no doubt is the parents' eagerness for help.

When parents themselves seek help and are directed to the Clinic, they are in most cases able to use the Clinic effectively. Even parents who are anxious for help for their child, may hesitate to undertake Clinic treatment on account of some real difficulties in their way. Some of the difficulties expressed frequently are: the distance of the Clinic from the home which makes it impractical for them to send or bring the child to the Clinic; mother's ill health, or a young baby at home whom the mother can neither bring with her nor leave at home; difficulty of finding an escort for the child

when the parents cannot come themselves; inability to afford the child's conveyance expenses to and from the Clinic. When the parent is anxious for help and the difficulties are real, the Clinic does its best to do what it can in meeting with these difficulties. When the mother cannot come to the Clinic, the Social Worker may see her at home. In some cases the Clinic was able to arrange for escort for the child to be brought to the Clinic and the conveyance expenses for those who could not afford to pay were also arranged. Parents advised by others to take help may not be themselves anxious for help. This happens where the parents are not clear why the referring agency has sent them because they do not see any problem in the child. A trained worker or teacher may be aware of some of the difficulty that handicaps the child, but the parent may not feel the need for treatment if the child's problem does not inconvenience them. One such parent, who was advised by a school teacher to take her eight year old daughter, who was very absent-minded and day-dreaming and did not participate in any activities in school, to the Clinic, said that she did not know why the child had been referred. She felt there was nothing the matter with the girl, she was just very quiet and well-behaved. Another parent who was referred by the Principal of a school for her son aged five years, who was extremely restless and destructive in the class explained that the class teacher disliked the boy and was, therefore, finding fault with him. She very much resented being told that her child needed treatment at the Clinic and was very angry with the Principal. But she came to the Clinic to prove that nothing was really wrong with the child. The Clinic Worker listened quietly and gave her all the information she wanted about the Clinic service, and was very warm and friendly towards her. She

came again, after having decided to bring the child for observation at the Clinic, but her anger towards the school continued, and she changed the child's school at the same time. In some cases where the parents were unwilling to bring the child for treatment, enthusiastic workers from the referring agency undertook the responsibility to bring the child. This practice has not been encouraged as the child cannot be helped much without the participation of the parents, more so when the child is young. It has, however, been possible to help adolescents to some extent even without the active participation of the parents.

The parent who comes for interviews with the worker is generally the mother. This is because the mother is the one who has more time to spare. In most cases, however, the father makes the first contact with the Clinic. When he learns that just one or two attendances at the Clinic will not fulfil the requirements of the Clinic, he decides to send the mother. When any other member of the family has been taking care of the child, the worker interviews that member who is most concerned with the child. It has been on the whole difficult to get fathers to participate in the Clinic treatment, as they are generally busy and have no time to spare. Only in a few cases the fathers have actively participated.

On their first visit to the Clinic, most parents come without appointment. The parent who has himself no clear idea of the Clinic tells the child what he thinks fit. How and what the parent tells the child depends very much upon the parent's relationship to the child and his attitude to the child's problem. One parent who was advised to consult the Clinic for his 14-year-old son for his stealing, told the boy that he was taking him to the doctor for

his pimples, because the father did not know how to tell the boy the real reason. Some parents feel that the child does not need to be told anything either because they don't see why he need know about it, or because they think that the child will be able to find out for himself. It is true that the Clinic is able to give the child a clear idea of why he needs to come, but it is essential for the parent to be helped to talk about this with the child frankly. This is one of the things that the worker has to discuss with the parent at the outset when the parent makes up his mind to bring the child for treatment. Parents, who seek help at the Clinic, range from the very sensitive parent who has a great deal of reserve in talking about his child's problem outside the family circle to the parent who has talked about it to everyone he has come across. A large proportion of parents come to the Child Guidance Clinic at a stage when they have failed with all measures of their own and also tried outside help. This often happens because they have not known about the Clinic earlier. One father brought his 14-year-old son for stealing, telling very clever lies, and refusing to take any interest in studies. The boy's stealing had come to the notice of the father when the boy was six years old. The father had punished him very severely to put a stop to it at the very beginning. But the boy continued to steal and no amount of severe punishments had any effect. Then the father reasoned with the boy and told him how bad it was to steal. Even reasoning had no effect, so the father sent the boy to a boarding school where he believed the strict discipline would do him good. Here the boy broke a lock, forged receipts and collected money in the name of the school, and came into trouble. The school authorities asked the father to take the boy away. So the boy was again on the father's hands, and one of his friends

said he would keep the boy and reform him. But he could not succeed. At last a doctor friend of the father's advised the father to consult the Child Guidance Clinic. This father was disgusted with the boy, and had no interest in him. In bringing him to the Clinic the father believed that he was doing his duty as father to give him one more chance to improve, but he was quite firm in his belief that the boy would come to no good. Many cases of a similar nature were referred to the Clinic through the Juvenile Court. At such a stage, relations between the parent and the child are very much strained and the parent is in no mood to help the child, and the child is also in a very disturbed state of mind.

The Social Worker in the Child Guidance Clinic aims to help the parent to function more effectively in the parental role through building up a healthy relationship with the child. The extent to which she can help the parent depends largely upon the emotional maturity of the individual parent. Factors like age, intelligence, level of education also matter. Some parents may be helped to see the child's problem as arising from their relationship to the child and connected with their own problem. Some parents may be helped to work out their conflicts which interfere in their relationship to the child, and directly affect their handling of the child. Some others who have a very immature, dependant type of personality may need emotional support and even practical help from the Worker in the matter of handling the child, while the child is undergoing treatment. While some parents may not participate at all, yet they give their help by not interfering in the child's use of the Clinic, as it happened in the case quoted above.

The following cases illustrate some of the work with parents. A young mother

brought her three and a half year old son to the Clinic for bedwetting, soiling his clothes during day time, extreme stubbornness, and temper tantrums. The boy also showed extreme jealousy towards his sister one year younger to him. The mother was very much upset that her son who had acquired bowel and bladder control at quite an early age had again relapsed. She impressed on the Worker that he was an intelligent child but she did not understand what happened to him in a few months. She had sent him to a nursery school as he was restless and mischievous at home when he was three years old and she was quite distressed to find that he soiled his clothes in school by having a bowel movement. The mother was extremely sensitive about what the teacher would think of her training, as the mother herself is a very neat and tidy person. The child's father was also upset by the child's behaviour, but he had very little contact with the child as he was away at work for long hours. The mother was criticised by her relatives as being indulgent, and not giving the child beating to correct him. She was a loving mother and was keenly interested in the children. She was helped to see what the coming of the next baby and compulsory attendance at school meant to the child. She was able to see the child's behaviour in the light of his emotional need rather than as a fault in her training. She was able to accept certain amount of untidiness and messing up by the boy without being disturbed by it, with the Worker's acceptance of her. This mother is one of the very few who come to the Clinic for help when the problem is simple and uncomplicated. Later she discussed with the Worker about behaviour which is normal to that age.

Kanta aged nine years is referred to the Clinic by the family physician as the parents

are worried about the girl's extreme slowness in all the things she does, a tendency to daydream, inability to mix with children of her own age and take interest in play and school work. Parents fear that Kanta's behaviour may be due to mental retardation and are eager for a mental test. The mental test, however, indicates an intelligence slightly above average. Parents feel relieved to hear that the girl is not mentally retarded but are puzzled by her behaviour. They are keen on taking Clinic help. The mother agrees to come for interviews with the Social Worker. She is an intelligent woman and is eager to give all details about the girl's early history to help the Clinic understand the girl's problem but does so in a very objective manner without letting her feelings enter into it. This mother with her decided preference for the elder child, a boy five years older than Kanta, who is brilliant in studies and good all round, finds it easier to attribute the girl's problems to mental retardation. With the Worker's understanding and accepting attitude this mother is able to know her own difficulties, and see how her own attitude towards the girl has played a part in the girl's problem. She feels the need to encourage the girl in activities she is interested, and is glad to notice the girl's response. Kanta in the meantime gets help from her interviews with the Psychiatrist in the playroom. This mother is one of those few who after getting insight into the problem was able to help herself.

Ahmed aged 12 years was referred from hospital for inability to retain food. He is the only son in the family and members of the family are greatly disturbed by his illness. Ahmed lost his mother when he was six years old and was since then looked after by his elder sister, who has separated

from her husband and lives in the parent's home. This sister has no children of her own and has been responsible for the care of Ahmed since his birth as the mother was always ailing. The father is too busy with his work and although keenly interested in the son, can give very little of his time. So the Worker interviews the sister. This sister who is very much frustrated in her own life has been keeping the boy tied to her and making illness a satisfying experience to him, and not letting him develop normal interest in life. In her interviews with the Worker she spoke a great deal about her own ill health, her feeling of being alone, and how much the boy's love meant to her. She felt disturbed when the boy, who was receiving treatment at the Clinic, showed a tendency to become less dependent on her. With the Worker's understanding and support, she was able to accept the situation. The Worker also helped her to develop outside interests which took her away from the narrow circle of her home. This woman did not gain any insight into her relationship to the boy, but was helped by giving relief to herself to give the boy freedom. Ahmed has to be helped in his adjustments at school and in his recreational activities, side by side with the treatment interviews at the Clinic.

Krishna aged eight years, referred by the Children's Aid Society for stealing and truancy from home, was brought to the Clinic by his mother, a small-made sickly looking woman who looked much older than her real age. Krishna is the youngest of six children. His father died when Krishna was six years old and the two elder brothers support the family. The mother is a very mild person who was entirely dependent on the husband and is now unable to manage her affairs without guidance. The eldest brother is also a mild

unassertive person. He is very fond of Krishna and is anxious to help him, but he is not able to give much time to him and believes in showing his love by letting Krishna have his own way. Krishna steals money, sells books and vessels from home and uses the money for buying sweets, and going to pictures. He has no friends and spends all the money on himself. He does not go to school regularly and the mother is not aware of any of his interests. In the Clinic playroom he is extremely destructive and restless. The mother says that she is unable to control the boy and the eldest brother is not able to give her much help. So she wants the Clinic to help. She is ready to do anything that the Clinic will tell her to in the matter of handling the case. She loves the boy, but is willing to keep him at home or send him to an institution according to the Clinic advice. This mother asked for advice in everything she did for the boy, and had to be given a great deal of encouragement to act on her own and also practical help. The eldest brother's help was also taken. He was encouraged to give more time to Krishna, and to take interest in the boy's activities. The brother felt awkward and unable to do this and had to be given a great deal of support and help by the Worker and gradually he was able to get closer to the boy. But the mother came continually for help and advice from the Clinic in the matter of handling the boy. The Worker helped to arrange for Krishna's schooling and recreation.

Freddie, a boy of 14 years, is brought by his mother to the Clinic because he has stopped going to school, and is extremely disobedient at home, spends his time reading trash and refuses to do any work. Freddie is the youngest of four children, and the only son. His father is working in Burma,

and comes home only once in two years. The mother lives here for the education of her children. She is greatly disturbed by Freddie's behaviour as she is unable to understand it. The mother has difficulty in bringing Freddie to the Clinic, which was recommended to her by Freddie's tutor. She tells him to accompany her to her cousin's house and then brings him to the Clinic. Freddie resents being told a lie and refuses to attend the Clinic. Here the mother asks the Worker for help. The mother is helped by the Worker to talk about the Clinic to the boy and encourages him to take over the responsibility of attending the Clinic. The Worker also sees him at his house and makes a friendly contact, and is able to find out about his interest in mechanical inventions and to encourage him in this by getting him books to read on the subject and taking interest in whatever he has been doing. Freddie then visits the Worker at the Clinic and later asks to see the Psychiatrist, as the Worker talks to him about how he can get help in some of his difficulties.

This mother is under great strain as she has to shoulder the responsibility of the home, and now she worries how the husband will take the news of this change in Freddie. Freddie had been a quiet, well-behaved boy and the father had a lot of hopes in him. She is also confused by the conflicting advice given her by her relatives and friends in the matter of dealing with the boy. After the first few contacts with the Worker the mother expresses a great sense of relief in being able to talk freely to someone who could understand her. But this mother is very inconsistent in her behaviour towards the boy, by demanding implicit obedience sometimes, and sometimes weakly giving in completely to his unreasonable demands. She blames the boy

for being so inconsiderate and not understanding his responsibility. She feels that she has to bear all this inconvenience alone and holds the husband responsible for spoiling the boy in his childhood. She, however, fears to face her own feeling of *inadequacy*. In spite of continued support given by the Worker this mother finds it hard to face her difficulties. She falls ill frequently and asks for the Worker's sympathy. This mother, however, reports improvement in the boy, as she finds that he joins a boy's club on his own and talks about learning to type and going to work, a thing which he completely evaded.

Govind aged 12 is referred to the Clinic through the Juvenile Court, for stealing, telling lies and not taking interest in studies. He is the eldest of four children and the family feels very much upset by his behaviour which is a bad example to the younger siblings. The parents are anxious for help. The mother has very little to say in the home and the boy takes the advantage of her by demanding certain privileges which if she refuses he becomes violent and throws things out of the house. He is afraid of the father who is very dominating and insists on implicit obedience. The Clinic feels the need to work with the father, but this father does not find time to come to the Clinic. Finally, the Worker is able to fix up a time to which he agrees. The father took great pains to impress on the Worker of the things he had done for his son, and pointed out his son's ingratitude. He expressed his resentment at having to put himself to so much trouble on account of the son, and accused the Juvenile Court for asking the Clinic to spy on him. Later he apologised to the Worker, and gave her friendly advice not to bother too much about the boy because he would come to no good. He informed

the Worker that the boy's horoscope predicted that he would behave in this way until he was 18 years of age and so no amount of effort would help him.

Although the parents are the key persons with whom the Clinic has to work in helping the child, it is often necessary when the child's problem is connected with the school to get the help and co-operation of the teacher who is in touch with the child. The child may have some difficulty in adjustment at the school or as it happens in many of the cases treated at the Clinic, the children may be retarded in their school progress owing either to interruptions in their school attendance, or to the child's being emotionally disturbed. In such cases individual attention from the teacher may help a great deal. It is good if the parent can be helped to approach the teacher, but many parents seek the Social Worker's help. This often happens in the case of the parents who have not had much education and feel awkward and scared to approach the teacher.

In the matter of helping the child to find proper recreational outlets the Clinic Worker has to spend quite a great deal of time and energy. Most schools do not provide any recreational facilities owing to either lack of space and open play-grounds, or if they have the space, they may not have the staff to supervise these activities. Many parents do not think it important to provide recreational outlets, and will not take as much trouble about it as they would about the school. Even if they are interested, they find it extremely difficult to arrange for it. And this is one aspect which has been badly neglected, and yet forms an important factor in the proper development of the child.

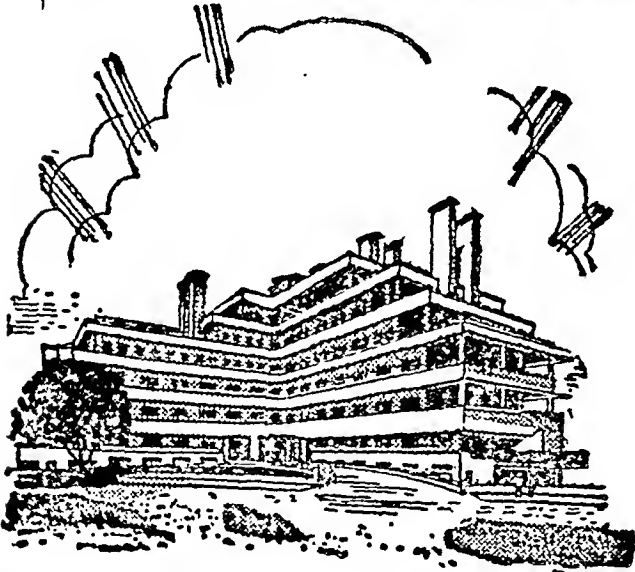
In working with the cases referred to

the Child Guidance Clinic one becomes aware not only of the lack of adequate educational and recreational facilities which should be considered as a basic need for the child's proper development, but also of the need for services like the family and

child welfare services. A wider and more discriminate use of child guidance service can only be possible with the education of the public in the matter of mental health and with the building up of the more basic requirements and services.

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NEWS AND NOTES

HUMAN RELATIONS IN INDUSTRY

Ladies and gentlemen, the previous speaker has covered a very wide field. Properly speaking, Human Relations in Industry are an application of human relations' principles in any industrial set-up or pattern. The subject of industrial relations being wider, is not synonymous with human relations in industry which is concerned with relations within a specific organisation. It is true that industrial relations happen within, and extend beyond the border of the factory. In that regard, human relations in industry also can be looked into as industrial relations in their wider applications and practices; but so far as the problem of human relations within industry is concerned, I believe, it is only a problem of personnel management. How to manage men properly and humanly? How to co-ordinate their relations and activities so that a satisfactory functioning of the industrial institution can be achieved alongside with the personality development of workers?—This is the specific issue and field of human relations in industry.

Once upon a time, industries were organised into small units. Mr. Mehta has well pointed out how in cottage industries of earlier times, there were personal relations established between the management and the workers. But with the emergence of industrialization, such relations disappeared. We may say that today human relations in industry are impersonalized and dehumanized. Industrialization has gone on alongside with impersonalization and dehu-

manization. Man is now generally considered as a "worker". The worker is seldom considered a man. The emphasis is on how much we can get out of him not on what he needs physically, psychologically, morally, socially and so on. This has led to a very unsatisfactory and most unfortunate situation in the industrial world. But thanks to development in Sociology, Psychology, Politics and other social sciences, our view of man and his needs are changing. The status of the worker is undergoing a perceptible transformation for the better. But still, managerial groups in India are annoyingly slow in recognizing this change and according this new status to their workers. The entire attitude of the management has to be changed. If industries have to thrive, human relations in industry have to be properly established.

I know a very big manager who was very strict. I do not want to name him. He is a very influential businessman and known to everybody in the industrial field. This big and rich man made it a point to go round his factories every day and and visit every department, and whomsoever he met he used to say: "Look here, you are not doing what is assigned to you. If you continue doing this, you will be dismissed." Evidently, somebody had told this manager that men had to be goaded on to do their work. The more you whip them the more is their speed. His motto was "*Never compliment, ever criticise*". I am sure, this gentleman had not learnt

personnel relations or human relations in industry or what is the same thing, the Science of Personnel Management. This attitude created amongst the workers lack of interest in the factory. Everybody hated the management and worked under sufferance. Now, this is an extreme case, but illustrates, more or less, the general outlook and situation in our country as far as the managements are concerned. There are a few managerial groups full of understanding, sympathy and vision. But they are so few as to justify the axiom: "One swallow maketh not a summer".

Now, if the gentleman I have illustrated had known how to manage men and keep human relations in industry, he would have patted his worker on the back and said: "Hello! Good morning! How are you? Are your children fine? Do you find your work interesting? Have you any difficulties?" These are questions and enquiries which convey the goodwill of the management. Where such goodwill permeates the entire organisation, everyone feels adjusted and satisfied and behaves in a dignified manner. To tell you frankly, in our industries there is complete absence of human relations. Yet, we speak of wider issues, that is, industrial relations, strikes and so on. Bad industrial relations which plague our society are only the reflections of bad personnel management. How can we solve wider issues without first settling smaller ones which are really at the root of the problem? Establish good human relations within your own industrial organization, I guarantee, industrial relations will not be such an insoluble problem as it is. Industry is a social institution. We have to accept social responsibilities. This is consistent with efficient management. That is my

first point. And the second point I am going to urge is that industry as a social institution must further accept responsibilities to help workers overcome some of the disabilities and handicaps which affect them. There are several handicaps associated with industries in India—long hours of work, bad working conditions, unemployment, low wages, risks and hazards, congestion, slums and so on. There is also the problem of fatigue. It must be realized that the worker can no longer be worked under unendurable conditions for long hours. You have to create good and satisfactory conditions of work. Perhaps, all these handicaps, to a very large extent, can be removed by a scientifically planned and conducted welfare programme.

If I go on extending the subject to industrial relations, I can argue points on strikes, arbitrations, arrests and so on. But I shall be content to speak on human relation in industry. I believe that we have not properly paid attention to the human aspect of the management problem. Work is a man's calling. A man should be called to it by inner affinities. Then only is his work his calling. And an industrial occupation means very much to the worker. It affects his family status. It determines his circle of friends and defines his social situation. It reacts on his physical health. It moulds his thinking and influences his mind in subtle ways. Therefore, we should take into consideration all these factors, and plan human relations in industry in such a way that industrial occupations enable men instead of degrading them.

—A speech by Dr. M. V. Moorthy at a Symposium on Human Relations in Industry organised by the All-India Manufacturers' Organisation, Bombay.

PRISONS CAN BE A SOCIAL SERVICE

What is Our Attitude? You know probably that, by an amendment in the Social Services Consolidation Act, wives of men who have been imprisoned for more than six months are classed as widows if they are over fifty or if they have a child in their care and may receive a pension while their husbands remain in gaol. Is there any general significance in this move? It's hard to tell but at least it coincided roughly with a growing public consciousness of the existence of prisons in our midst. Mostly we forget about them unless a gaol break, a strike or riot hits the headlines. When the disturbance is quelled we forget about it in the comfortable assumption that God's in His Heaven; all's well with the world. But is all well?

Ideas about Punishment.—Let us look at some of the reasons why people go to prison or are punished for breaking the law. In earlier times, in the Middle Ages for instance, there were practically no gaols but there was plenty of punishment. A wrongdoer was generally subjected to corporal punishment to exorcise the devil which had taken possession of him. Later the attitude to the punishment was one of public vengeance and demand for retribution for the crime against society. At the same time there was an idea that an offender could expiate his crime by paying for it in pain and suffering. This belief persists strongly in countries which have a mystic conception of the State. Nazi Germany is a good example. But I don't think we have altogether given up the notion ourselves. A man cannot be tried for the same offence twice and, besides, as far as the law is concerned, a sentence once served eliminates, so to speak, the crime for which it was imposed. However with the increasing efficiency of the

C. I. B. methods a criminal record is taken into account when a sentence is imposed on a man found guilty. This is probably a break with the old philosophy and will come up again later.

You are probably wondering why no mention has been made so far, of the fact that a man may be sent to prison to be reformed. Logically this reason comes last because it is the most recent and we are still trying to evolve ways of effecting that reformation, rooting out at the same time the old beliefs in and demands for retribution.

The Buildings.—The Quaker influence in England and America was largely responsible for a change in the form of prison punishment. Large buildings were erected to house the criminals, who were solitarily confined,—and silently—in separate cells. There, it was thought, they would have opportunity to think over their misdeeds and realise the error of their ways. It didn't work.

Large numbers, and it is still happening today, came back again and again to serve other sentences for similar or different offences. Now the interesting thing is that most of the prisons in Australia are built architecturally on the same lines as these old bastille type of institutions. What is more, prisoners spend on an average fourteen hours out of the twenty-four alone in cells. One might easily be pardoned for saying solitary confinement is still the main form of punishment meted out. Why? Do we still believe in the wholesome effect of contemplation? It is unlikely. The reason seems to be that administratively it is easier to run a gaol if the prisoners are safely locked up.

Well, what is it like to be shut up for fourteen hours at a time for months on an end? Some cells have stretchers or iron bedsteads, some have palliasses, and blankets are provided but seldom are they washed or cleaned between changes in occupants of the cell. Sometimes there is a stool in the cell or even a table. A feature in Australian prisons is the sanitary bucket which is emptied by the prisoner himself each morning. In fact there are few prisons in the English-speaking world where the sewer is connected to cells. It is here in the cell, in most Australian gaols, that the prisoner eats all his meals alone. Community dining has been introduced only in some prison farms.

While he is out of his cell the prisoner, if he is lucky, has a job to do either about the gaol or in one of the workshops. Those on farms are the busiest. However, only about one ninth of the gaol population in New South Wales and one fifth in Queensland are on farms. For the rest the cry is one of deadening routine and soul-destroying boredom.

Reforms in Prison Methods.—Many people think that any suggestion of prison is based on sentimental eye-wash. It might be; but let us look at some facts. An offender is put into prison to protect the rest of the community. Does imprisonment have this effect? Temporarily only. If a prison were a deterrent you wouldn't expect that many would repeat the offence. You may be pleased that the man who burgled your house, hit you on the head or snatched your hand-bag got a stretch but when he comes out of an ordinary crowded city gaol the chances are more than fifty-fifty that he'll do it again. Reconviction of men from big gaols where no planned reformatory treatment is attempted occurs in about 70

per cent. of cases. Even in specialised institutions like the English Borstals about 30 per cent. to 40 per cent. of the young men are reconvicted within five years. Reform and rehabilitation are difficult problems. We're not succeeding very well either in protecting ourselves or in our humane responsibility to people who are out of tune with normal society because of poverty, economic disturbance of the country, unhappy family life, mental ill-health or a deprived childhood.

All this is not to say that no one has ever thought of treatment other than simple incarceration. The Borstal has already been mentioned. It is for young men who are persistent offenders. Only one of these institutions is "closed". The others are much like large country estates built in the first place by the first offenders to be committed. This fact is almost a keystone—the places gather a typical English moss of tradition of good behaviour, industry, endeavour to learn to work and get on with others. The pressure is continually in this direction and it shows not perfect but better results. Big experiments are going on in England now with this kind of open institution and different kinds of offenders are having similar treatment to that described. It is too early to assess results on the basis of reconviction because a period of five years must pass before you can be reasonably sure that the offender is a better adjusted person than when he first went to gaol. As for our own prison farms which are open institutions it seems fairly certain that the effect of treatment of this kind has better results than simple imprisonment although no official figures are published in prison reports.

Sing Sing.—Experiments have been going on with a variety of different kinds of

treatment in closed institutions in America nearly all this century. In Sing Sing, of which, if we believe Hollywood, it is hard to believe any good, a trial was made in 1915 with a self-governing organisation amongst the prisoners. In this body the lifers and long-termers were found to take the responsible roles! The Welfare League, as it was called, was responsible for education, re-employment, relief of relatives, sport, internal discipline and some other aspects of the life by means of separate departments responsible to the parliament, democratically elected. Reconviction figures for the period soon after the League's establishment are not available but it is interesting to note that the emergency cases—results of brawls amongst prisoners—were reduced from 378 in the previous year to eighty-six in the first ten months of the League's work. The success is attributed to the fact that the men were kept active and out of their cells longer in order to cover the jobs. They developed some *esprit de corps* and gained a little experience in responsibility.

Diagnose the Trouble.—Later on different and more scientific experiments were started in other prisons. The most notable tendency is the attempt to diagnose the prisoner's trouble—it may be social, moral, mental or physical. This requires a fairly well equipped reception centre with staff qualified in medicine, psychiatry, psychology and social work. Of course the diagnosis is not much use unless treatment according to recommendations can be carried out by staff that understands them and

has an optimistic attitude to the treatability of the disease—criminal behaviour. This is the stumbling block in most countries. To treat prisoners as individuals, each with a separate rehabilitation plan, mean a big goal staff with varied equipment for trade or work, training, libraries and recreation facilities.

You and I have to pay taxes for this and unless we know what's behind it all we'll squeal. There are not very many reforms that can be carried out in Australia without first of all an extensive building programme and that is not likely to come about while law-abiding citizens are without houses. However a hopeful sign appeared recently in New South Wales when the Cabinet approved the implementation of the Comptroller's report, which included many sweeping reforms, amongst them classification on personal grounds before treatment starts. So far as treatment itself is concerned the widening of recreational and educational facilities will presumably modify the dull routine and long hours of confinement.

What does it all mean? Are we coddling the offender? Many people used to think so but their numbers seem to be decreasing under the now more or less constant pressure of rational groups who believe that we should not leave those who are obviously unable to keep going in their proper place in the world of their own inadequate devices but should, on the contrary, help them to get back on the road or find an easier track whatever the reason for their failure might be.—*Social Services Journal*, February, 1949.

U. S. AIDS THE DEAF TO HELP THEMSELVES

Men and women disabled by deafness or impaired hearing find help in the United States under a program of rehabilitation

financed by the federal and state governments.

In the last five years, 17,587 of these

handicapped civilians have been especially trained and placed in jobs in virtually every type of trade and occupation, reports the U. S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation (OVR). The OVR coordinates the program for civilians throughout the nation. Veterans, with hearing disabilities acquired in service, are taken care of by the Veterans Administration.

To develop and stimulate maximum rehabilitation opportunities, the OVR cooperates with a number of special organizations such as the American Hearing Society, National Association of the Deaf, National Fraternal Society of the Deaf, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, and Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf.

Eligibility for Aid.—Men and women of working age with substantial hearing handicaps are eligible for aid under this program. To qualify for help they must have a reasonably good chance of becoming employable or of getting a more suitable job through such assistance.

At 88 centers in 33 States, the handicapped persons obtain complete services. These include ear examinations, hearing tests, try-out of electrical hearing aids and training in their use, lip-reading instruction, speech correction, and training in the use of residual hearing.

Medical, surgical, and psychiatric treatment, hospital care, and artificial hearing devices to increase the ability to work also are provided.

Training for clients is obtained on a contract basis from established educational institutions. These include universities, public and private vocational and trade

schools, correspondence schools, and institutions with extension courses. Private tutors also may be obtained for special training.

Additional services include maintenance and transportation during rehabilitation, and providing necessary occupational tools, equipment, and licences.

Individuals who are not able to pay for these services are helped with public funds. Counsel and guidance to help the individual select and obtain a suitable job are given free.

Special Course for the Unschool.—This year, a new type of service is being added. A special intensive adjustment and training course will be given for illiterate or unschooled deaf men and women.

Michael J. Shortley, Director of OVR has announced that this training will be offered for a month this summer at the Michigan School for the Deaf. Rehabilitation agencies of all other States are being invited to send their clients.

This new training will stress several activities that the illiterate deaf persons must master to lead a normal life, such as understanding directions, using transportation facilities, handling money, telling time, and attending to personal hygiene. Community relationships and responsibilities, employer-employee relationships, basic materials, and tools and processes will also be emphasized.

The aim of the course will be to release these people from the isolation and dependence of a non-communicative existence, Mr. Shortley notes. They may then continue "development through paid employment and association with educated deaf people."

U. S. COOPERATES IN WORLD ATTACK ON CANCER

Private and governmental agencies in the United States are cooperating with those of other countries in a program of scientific research and public education against a rising tide of cancer. Dr. Leonard Scheele, Surgeon General of the U. S. Public Health Service (USPHS), says cancer "occupies a high place among the medical problems that can only be solved by coordinating the efforts of medical scientists everywhere."

In the United States alone, cancer is expected to kill 200,000 persons this year. During the last 25 years, it has advanced from seventh to second place—behind heart disease—as the leading cause of death in the United States.

The U. S. Congress created the National Cancer Institute in 1937 to direct the Government's over-all cancer drive. It cooperates with agencies of the 48 States, usually the Boards of Health, and with private organizations in cancer research and education. It conducts a trainee program and extends aid to medical schools. One of its basic purposes is to coordinate cancer research in the United States with that of other countries.

Research Objective.—The research objective of the Institute, as of other agencies, is to find the cause of cancer and better methods of prevention or cure. It also seeks to cut the death toll by stimulating early diagnosis and treatment through education of practising physicians and the public.

Funds appropriated by Congress for the Institute's work have increased from less than \$1,000,000 in 1946 to \$14,000,000 for the present fiscal year, ending June 30. Its program is planned by its National Advisory Cancer Council, composed of six experts and headed by the U. S. Surgeon General.

The Institute, situated at Bethesda, Maryland, employs a staff of 250 experts in one of the World's largest cancer research laboratories. The major part of the Institute's research expenditures, however, goes into grants to universities, hospitals and private laboratories both in the United States and abroad.

Grants Made to Other Countries.—During the last year alone the Institute has made grants totalling \$90,760 for research in other countries. They have gone to institutions and individuals in Brazil, Canada, Denmark, England, France and Palestine. Making these grants, Dr. Scheele says, "constitutes a move by the National Cancer Institute and its National Advisory Council to assist in the mobilization of an international attack on cancer."

The largest and best-known private organization fighting cancer in the United States is the American Cancer Society, established in 1913. While supporting cancer research since 1945, its major contribution has been public education. The Society estimates that the lives of 65,000 of the 200,000 Americans expected to die of cancer this year could be saved through early diagnosis and treatment.

To this end, the Society has helped set up 190 cancer detection centres, 400 cancer treatment clinics, and 35 diagnostic clinics throughout the United States. Many more must be established, experts agree, to meet the cancer threat. The goal for cancer treatment clinics alone is one for every 50,000 persons.

Nation-Wide Campaign conducted.—During April 1949, proclaimed Cancer Control Month by President Truman, the Society conducted a nation-wide campaign to raise \$14,50,000 for its work. The na-

tional drive was directed by Charles F. Kettering, noted industrialist and scientist, assisted by Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby, newspaperwoman and wartime director of the U. S. Women's Army Corps. The drive was supported by American labour, industry, agriculture, educational and publicity groups.

Contributing to the research work against cancer is the Damon Runyon Cancer fund founded to honor the American writer who died of the disease in 1946. Many Americans have contributed to this fund. Milton Berle, well-known comedian, recently raised more than \$1,000,000, in contribution to the fund during a 16-hour television broadcast.

Many Private Bodies Interested.—There are in the United States at least a score of privately financed organizations interested in cancer research. Many belong to the American Association for Cancer Research which holds a scientific conference every year. Last year the Association and the international group, the Union Internationale Contre Le Cancer, jointly sponsored the Fourth International Cancer Research congress in St. Louis, Missouri.

In addition to other literature on cancer,

the NCI and the American Cancer Society publish journals reporting the latest findings. They are distributed both in the United States and abroad. Close contact also is maintained with the United Nations World Health Organisation in the world-fight against cancer.

Atomic Energy Utilized.—New forces are constantly being thrown into the fight against the disease. A newcomer is the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, which is providing free radioactive isotopes for cancer research, giving research grants to schools and hospitals, and building laboratory facilities for atomic research in cancer.

While much has been done, much more must be done before cancer can be conquered, the National Cancer Institute emphasizes. It says:

"The release of atomic energy came only after many individuals from many different parts of this country—as well as many countries of the world—made research contributions. Finding the cause and prevention or cure of cancer is a still vaster problem. The wholehearted cooperation of all individuals and organizations working in the field will lessen the time before the answer is found."

MEASURES TO MAKE BEGGARS USEFUL AND SELF-RELIANT CITIZENS. BEGGAR RELIEF WORK IN BANGALORE CITY.

Having found it necessary and expedient to prohibit persons from resorting to begging as a means of livelihood, the Government of Mysore have introduced Act No. XXXIII of 1944 for the prohibition of Beggary in the State.

The Act and the Rules framed under it provide not only for the prohibition of Beggary in the State but also for the opening

of Receiving and Relief Centres for beggars.

Government were pleased to direct in February 1946 that the provisions of the Act for the prohibition of beggary in the State be made applicable to the City of Bangalore. It is therefore an offence now to beg in the City of Bangalore.

A Central Beggar Relief Committee helps in implementing the provisions of the Act.

The Hon'ble the Minister for Education, Sri D. H. Chandrasekhariah, is the *ex-officio* Chairman of the Committee at present and the work of Beggar Relief is being carried on under his direction.

Towards the Beggar Relief Scheme public donations amounting to nearly a lakh of rupees have been received. The Bangalore City Municipality is contributing an annual grant of Rs. 3,000 for meeting part of the expenses of the Beggar Colony. A number of other Municipalities in the State have also come forward to help the scheme with their grants. But the Government are shouldering the major portion of the cost of the relief work.

The new colony for the use of beggars has been built on a high level on the bank of the river Vrushabhavati on the Bangalore-Magadi Road at a distance of six miles from the City. Four big dormitories equipped with light, water and sanitary fittings have been constructed for the occupation of beggars. Administrative sanction has been obtained for the construction of a dozen more dormitories, as and when necessary. A hospital with provision for beds has been constructed and it is found to be useful both to the Colony and to the surrounding villages. Quarters for the Superintendent, Doctor and other members of the Staff have been provided in the Colony.

To begin with, the Beggars' Colony was located in Sri Giddanna's Choultry next to the Municipal Swimming Pool and a good deal of preliminary work connected with the Beggar Relief was done there. The arresting of beggars commenced for the first time on 28th October, 1946. About 3,100 beggars so far been rounded up in the City and brought to the Receiving Centre. After a detailed enquiry, the Receiving Officer has released 1,622 with admonitions, and 1,166 persons have been released

by the Court. About 141 persons have been detained for permanent relief of whom sixty beggars have been repatriated outside the State.

The procedure connected with the treatment of beggars is simple. The beggars are arrested by the Police Officers when they are found to be begging and soon after they are produced before the Superintendent who is the Receiving Officer. A regular detailed enquiry is held by him. The name of the beggar, his parentage, place of birth, means of living, reasons for begging, and names of persons legally entitled to maintain the beggar will be ascertained at the enquiry. The Receiving Officer has discretion to release with or without surties such of them as will undertake to give up begging. Those who are not released are produced before the City Magistrate, Bangalore, for enquiry. The Court has discretion to release the first offenders with or without surety. But if the same beggar comes up before the Court a second time, he will not be let off unless surety is furnished. Detention in the Relief Centre is ordered in the case of those who are not released if they are Mysoreans by birth or domicile, and orders of repatriation are passed in respect of non-Mysoreans who will then be sent out of the State.

The Department of Beggar Relief owns a motor van for conveying beggars from the City to the Colony and for taking them to the Court for trial and also to the Railway Station for repatriating non-Mysoreans.

Relief is given to those persons who are detained in the Relief Centre until they are discharged by Court or released on parole by the Superintendent on the surety of a relative or friend who undertakes to take care of the beggar and promises not to allow him to resort to begging again.

Comprehensive rules have been framed for regulating the work in the Receiving and Relief Centres. As soon as a beggar is received in the Relief Centre, he is given a shave, a disinfectant bath and fresh clothes. Soap and soapnut powder are provided to each beggar to keep his clothes and person neat and tidy. Each beggar gets a mat, a bed-sheet, a pillow and a blanket for his bedding. Besides, a Khaki baniyan, dhoti of 7 yards, Khadi cap and a towel are supplied for his wear. Young boys are allowed to wear *chaddis* (shorts) in place of dhotis. Women beggars are each given a saree of 8 yards, a petticoat and a towel. In addition, they get coconut oil and combs to dress their hair. The diet consists of 16 ozs. of food for each beggar per day. It consists of 10 ozs. of ragi flour and 6 ozs. of rice. The principal meals are served at 11 A.M. and at 6 P.M. daily.

Beggars are given medical help in the Colony itself. Each beggar is examined by the doctor daily and state of health is noted in a Health Register. His weight is taken once a fortnight and the variations are noted. Most of the beggars who come to the colony are found to be badly in need of medical aid. Those suffering from cont-

agious diseases are isolated and sent to the respective hospitals for treatment.

The present Beggars' Colony was opened by His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore on 1st July, 1948.

The able-bodied beggars are receiving training in mat-weaving, and envelope-making for the present. It is proposed to introduce spinning and other cottage industries. There is also a proposal to introduce agriculture and horticulture to engage the beggars. Arrangements are being made to impart primary education to all the beggars and a building is ready for the purpose. The Adult Literacy Council have opened a school in the Colony. Prayers are held both in the morning and evening before the inmates take their food. Every effort is being made to reform the beggar to become a useful and self-reliant citizen.

Whatever may be the causes of beggary, it is undoubtedly a menace to society. In a civilised society there should be no place for begging. It is indeed a big problem and its ultimate success would depend on the willing and hearty cooperation of the public.

—*Mysore Information Bulletin*, January 31, 1949.

PSYCHOLOGISTS IN AMERICAN FACTORIES

Industrial engineers and administrators in the United States have, in recent years, become increasingly aware of the relationship between production problems and problems of human behaviour. Quite commonly to-day, American businessmen call upon people trained in the understanding of human relations problems affecting employees. Large business organisations, which have had progressive personnel programs for some time, are extending them to a

variety of new areas in the field of human relations. Many firms employ specialists with psychological and sociological training, who are as much a part of a company's service to employees as the maintenance of dispensary.

Like many another step in scientific progress, one of the most significant early discoveries in industrial psychology grew out of an experiment that failed in its fundamental purpose. This fruitful failure

occurred when engineers at Western Electric, America's largest manufacturer of electrical and communications equipment, sought to measure the effect of factory illumination upon production. Science, they reasoned, could predict with satisfying accuracy how quickly machines could turn raw materials into finished products under varying conditions. Why not apply similar thinking to the effect of varying conditions upon human behaviour in running the machines, thus solving one of the troublesome unknowns in the equation of industrial production?

Initially, three different illumination experiments were conducted in three different departments at the company's Hawthorne plant in Chicago, Illinois. The general test procedure in each department, however, was the same. After conducting a preliminary production period to determine a base rate against which future production changes might be compared, the light intensity in the three departments was changed at given intervals and the production rates were carefully tabulated. The investigators felt that changes in light intensity would be reflected in the production rates of the workers. But it did not work that way; the workers' output rose and fell apparently without any relation to the amount of illumination involved.

Puzzled by this finding, the engineers performed the experiment twice again, taking utmost care to control all variables. Periodic physical examinations of workers were made. The amount of sleep preceding each work day was correlated with quality and quantity of production. Lighting conditions were changed radically. Rates continued to improve throughout these experiments without positive relationship to light intensity. Only when illumination was reduced to

"moonlit" intensity did workers complain that they could not see their work and production fell.

During the later stages of the experiment, Elton Mayo, a professor of industrial research at Harvard University in Massachusetts, joined the investigation. The experiments were carefully screened and re-assessed. It was apparent that in spite of their scrupulous attempts to eliminate variables, the engineers had missed a key influence on workers' behaviour. As Mayo and a colleague named F. J. Roethlisberger went back over the work, they discovered that this key influence was the attitude of the workers towards their participation in the experiment. In summing up their feelings, Roethlisberger described what the engineers had missed. "What all the experiments had dramatically and conclusively demonstrated," he wrote, "was the importance of employee attitudes and sentiments. It was clear that the response of workers to what was happening about them was dependent upon the significance these events had for them. In most work situations the meaning of a change is likely to be as important, if not more so, than the change itself. Whether or not a person is going to give his services wholeheartedly to a group effort depends, in good part, on the way he feels about his job, his fellow workers, and his supervisors—the meaning for him of what is happening about him."

What, in analytical terms, was the meaning the experiment had for these workers? To answer this question, the experimenters, led by Mayo, dropped the purely quantitative earlier methods of measurement and went at the task of interviewing the workers who took part in the experiments. Basically, they found that previous to the experiment, the workers had the more or less standardized relation of

factory workers to their jobs; but later, as participants in an experiment, they were involved in a novel and exciting project. They achieved a special status as individuals whose opinions were sought by leading scientists and for whom each day's work had a special significance.

For Elton Mayo, the ramifications of the Hawthorne experiments stretched from engineering to anthropology. For Western Electric, they suggested a new approach to personnel relations. Both have worked toward applying what was learned at Hawthorne to concrete and industrial problems.

One of the most interesting revelations of the Hawthorne findings for Mayo, who had previously considered social relations as fundamentally those of one individual to another, was their indication that considerable stress should be placed on group relations in industry. A worker was primarily a member of a department or production team from which he derived most of his work standards and through which he dealt with his employers. The relation of the individual to the team and, in turn, the team to the job or the supervisor emerged in Mayo's later work as the crucial factor in industrial relations.

Changes in social attitudes and group standards, Mayo holds, have not kept pace with the radical changes in workers' environments in the past half century. The status and prestige, for example, of a craftsman of 50 years ago, both in the factory and in the community, often depended upon his excellence in practising a trade which might not change during his lifetime. His descendants, however, while inheriting many of his social attitudes, are faced with a very different set of problems. Their success depends not so much upon mastering a static set of skills as upon their ability to change and adapt. When a worker

is not able to adapt his inherited social attitudes to his modern environment, a variety of emotional maladjustments may result.

Armed with these concepts, the industrial relations specialists at Western Electric adapted what was learned during the Hawthorne experiments to the needs of employees in a new type of program known as personnel counseling. Personnel counselors are specially trained people who are assigned to a specific department or a group of people. They are available to anyone in their group or department in the assigned work area. Much of their initial time is spent in getting to know both employees and the work they do. The counselor is as interested in workers' problems as citizens or family-heads as in those arising directly from their jobs. Counselors do not offer advice or take up an employee's problems with supervisors. The emphasis during a talk with a counselor is, instead, upon the worker thinking through his problems for himself.

Although personnel counseling is still in the process of development at Western Electric, its underlying concepts and principles have already been widely adapted to the needs of personnel departments in stores, insurance companies, and many other types of business. For the psychologists, however, personnel counseling is but a limited application of what they know of human behaviour, particularly group behaviour. Under the directorship of the late Kurt Lewin, a brilliant psychologist who fled from Hitler's Germany to the United States, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology developed its now famous Research Center for Group Dynamics to study political and industrial group behaviour. Lewin undertook what he called "action research", in which maximum social utility,

as much as theoretical significance, was the guiding precept. He focussed his attention on the new kind of group relations deriving from the changing industrial scene in the United States. He insisted that practical men—union leaders, business men, and social workers—be involved in his research.

One of his students, Alfred J. Marrow, has combined in his own career the union of scholarly and practical endeavour which Lewin stressed at the Research Center. As president of a garment factory, the Harwood Manufacturing Corporation, Dr. Marrow deals with the problems of a typical, medium-sized American business. With the aid of colleagues from the Research Center, Marrow has investigated many of the problems which contribute to and detract from the high morale and high productivity of the workers at his Marion, Virginia factory. At the same time, as a faculty member of the New School for Research in New York City and adviser to the Research Center for Group Dynamics, he maintains his contact with psychology on its more theoretical plane.

At Marrow's Virginia factory, the psychologists have done much to relate worker adjustment to production efficiency. One major problem, for example, which, like most American employers, he faced continually is that of employes who take a job and then leave within a short time. Study has disclosed that such behaviour is only occasionally due to the fact that the employe genuinely does not like the work and goes in search of more congenial employment. More frequently, such early quitting is a reaction against the feeling of discouragement and the fear of failure which often attends the learning of a new skill. To overcome this, great pains are taken at Harwood to explain to the new employee the learning problems he will

face and how they may be solved. He is acquainted with the plant and the people with whom he will work.

One of the most difficult periods for the new employee, the psychologists discovered, was his initial training. Workers became discouraged as they worked toward production goals set for the entire training period. To offset this reaction to the task of learning, experienced workers, collaborating with supervisors, broke down the overall training goals into a series of small, short-term goals adapted to individual capacities. A fear of failure is thus supplanted by a feeling of success as each daily or weekly standard of production is achieved. Practical results at the factory have been very gratifying. Leaving during the initial training period has been greatly reduced. New workers striving for short-term goals are trained in shorter periods than were possible under old methods of training.

Learning, of course, is not confined to new employees. All American businesses are sensitive to consumer buying tastes, and none is more affected by changes in fashions and public taste than the garment industry. New garments and new styles mean new production methods. Workers who have learned to produce one item are naturally reluctant to become trainees again. But changeovers, if they are to be efficiently made, require the full co-operation of all the workers involved.

To cope with this problem, many programs have been tried at the Harwood factory. The most promising is called the "group decision" method of setting up new practices. Workers to be affected by a production change are assembled and the new garment is described. The management explains in details why the change is necessary. When all the questions of the production staff have been answered, the

group leader asks the group how they think the change should be made. Experienced workers are appointed to make the new garment experimentally in order to arrive at production rates and methods. From their work the re-training program and the new rates of payment are evolved. Because the workers understand management's problems as well as their own, differences of opinion concerning rates of payment are amicably settled. On several occasions the rate proposals arrived at independently by workers have been identical to those of management. Although considerable working time is consumed by this procedure, Marrow finds that decisions thus reached are accepted wholeheartedly.

A key to success of Marrow's group decision method has been his continual education of supervisors' in the basic principles of human relations. Whenever necessary, supervisors' meetings are held to stress the importance of psychologically sound procedures in dealing with people. At

these meetings the problems of individual supervisors are dramatized by having two or more members of the group act out real-life situations. One supervisor, for example, may be concerned about a machine operator who is chronically late. Instead of discussing, in general terms, a means of correcting this behaviour without losing the co-operation of the operator, two of the group are chosen to act out the way they would approach the worker. When their little drama is finished, the group criticises the approach of the actor-supervisor. The critics then show what they would have done. Usually when this process is repeated several times, a solution emerges which the group can adopt as a standard procedure in future cases. As in the case of establishing the re-training program, the people actually involved in the problem are successfully applying techniques which not many years ago were confined to the realm of experimental psychology.

—JOHN JACOBS

CARE OF CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS IN POLAND.

The inhuman German policy of ruthless extermination of human life in Poland took a cruel toll of Polish children. One million, nine hundred thousand Polish children were destroyed by the Germans. This mass murder accounts for the present day decline of child population in ratio to adult population as compared with pre-war years. Prior to the war, children and youth constituted 42% of the population; today they number 33%. More than 1,500,000 children lost one or both parents, while others were seized for forced labour. All children were deprived of schooling and the basic necessities of life. Since the Germans did not respect the right of the Polish people to

a decent way of life, they naturally did not admit the right of Polish children to grow up as human beings and so deprived them of most of the experiences that are a child's birthright. Among the experiences from which the Germans excluded large numbers of Polish children were the learning of a personal moral code; a knowledge of the meaning of truth; the all-important feeling of belonging—of knowing the security that comes with being loved. Hundreds of thousands were left behind to fare for themselves when their parents were sent to concentration camps or into Germany for forced labour. Others, about 200,000 of them, were taken to Germany. The very

young ones whose physical characteristics were what the Germans designated as the "Aryan type", were removed to Germany and there brought up as Germans. The older ones were taken for forced labour. At the same time, the Germans spread among children as well as adults vulgar literature and pornography in the theatre, films and radio.

These emotional deprivations, plus migration, undernourishment and traumatic nervous shocks left deep scars on Polish children.

It is clear, therefore, that after liberation Poland faced a tremendous task of child care. Two million, seven hundred thousand children needed partial aid (three times as many as before the war) and 300,000 needed institutional care. However, after the liberation there were only 413 institutions that could be utilized immediately, and these could house a mere 22,000 children at the most.

The task of instilling life values in an entire generation of children cannot and must not be underestimated. And there were the 1,500,000 orphans and half orphans who needed help.

The Ministry of Labour and Public Welfare initially handled all such work, but later on children between the ages of 3-18 were placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. The vastness of the task facing the Ministry of Education becomes apparent when it is realized that 6½ million children are under its jurisdiction. The Ministry of Education conducts its welfare activities through the regular school administrative organs. Each school circuit has its child welfare section.

Reuniting Children with Their Families.—

An intricate problem that Poland faced was that of finding and reuniting with their families, children who had been re-

moved to Germany by the Nazis. Some had been taken from their homes at a very early age—with all signs of their origin erased by the Germans. Social services concerned with reuniting families had therefore to work in Germany as well as Poland. The services in Poland tried to obtain all possible pertinent information; the Plenipotentiary of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare attempted to locate children in Germany and, if found, to return them to their homes. The Red Cross was and continues to be particularly helpful in locating these lost children. Up to the present, about 22,000 children have been returned to Poland, of these 20,000 from the Eastern Zone of Germany and 2,000 from the Western Zone. Thus, most of the Polish children from the Soviet Zone of occupation have been given back to Poland, while most of the Polish children from the Western Zones are still being held by the Germans.

Supplementary Feeding and Summer Vacations.—The two programs which include the greatest number of children and juveniles are the supplementary feedings and summer vacations. Supplementary feeding is part of the program at schools, kindergartens and education and recreation centers (Swietlice). One million, four hundred and ninety three thousand children and juveniles are fed today as compared with 830,000 before the war.

The plan behind the summer vacations program is to enable all Polish children to spend their vacations in resorts. Seven hundred eighty four thousand and five hundred children attended summer camps, half day camps and playgrounds in 1947. The figure jumped to one million in 1948, and about 780,000 of this number attended summer camps in various resorts operated by Government and voluntary agencies.

These figures, as are shown in the table below, represent great gains over pre-war years. (Please note that today's population is 23,930,000 as compared with the pre-war 35,100,000).

Year	No. of Camps, Half-Day Camps and Playgrounds	No. of Children
1931	1,242	124,900
1932	1,247	127,100
1933	1,321	154,300
1934	1,981	170,800
1935	3,222	260,800
1936	4,249	345,600
1937	6,624	453,600
1945	1,386	175,500
1946	8,954	750,000
1947	9,340	784,500

Summer vacation facilities are provided by voluntary agencies, trade unions and youth organizations. The Ministry of Education co-ordinates all the programs, exercises supervision over them and subsidizes them. The above mentioned agencies bear 26% of the total cost of maintenance of all facilities, the government contributes 50.8% and parents' fees total 13.6%. The rest (9.6%) is covered by local governments and donations from abroad.

The fees that parents pay vary in accordance with the income of the family and the size of the family. All children going to and from camps are entitled to a 75% reduction on railroad tickets. The children are given a thorough medical examination before entering the camps. Every camp has a doctor and nurse on the premises or within easy reach. All children attending camps carry accident and death insurance.

Swietlice.—Town and city life creates many leisure time problems for young people. An interesting service which attempts to help young people solve these problems is known

as *Swietlice* (Education and Recreation Centers). They are open to all children and are particularly beneficial to those whose mothers work. Children may do their homework here under the supervision of specially trained social workers and there are many opportunities and facilities open for recreation. Games, discussions and entertainment provided at the *Swietlice* make the streets and attendants petty pilfering and vagabondage much less attractive to teen-age youth. A meal is also served at the *Swietlice*. Approximately 86,000 children throughout Poland attend these *Swietlice*. They are run by parents' associations and such voluntary agencies as the Workers Friends of Children Society, the Peasant Friends of Children Society, the Red Cross, the Central Committee of Social Welfare and Caritas. They are subsidized by the government and supervised by the Ministry of Education. The *Swietlice* consist for the most part of only one room. Similar to them in concept, but much larger and better equipped are the "Jordan" gardens and playgrounds. Each Jordan garden and playground has facilities for several hundred children, and when open air play is not possible, there are suitably equipped buildings. Fifty-three are once more operating on a full time basis, and 125 new ones are being built.

Care of Weak Children.—Special rest homes for weak children are among the innovations that have appeared in Poland since the war's end. Four thousand seven hundred such children are housed in the 55 centers that exist in Polish sea and mountain resorts today. The children continue with their studies while they are in the rest homes so that no lags occur in their educational programs. Twenty-two rest homes are run by the government and the rest by various voluntary agencies.

Care of Orphans.—The previously mentioned welfare sections of the school circuits have placed 73,000 children in foster homes. The foster parents receive financial help from the government, plus guidance from the teachers and social workers who supervise the home conditions. If the supervisor discovers that a foster home is inadequate he removes small children to Children's Homes and older children (generally) to boarding schools.

There are now 701 Children's Homes with a total of 46,500 children; and 282 of these Homes have been established only since the war's end. The government operates 136 of these, 92 are run by local governments, and the remainder by social service and religious associations. Sixty-two, out of the above 701 Homes, are special institutions maintained for deaf, dumb, blind, mentally deficient and delinquent children. Government Homes are maintained by government funds, while Homes maintained by local government and voluntary agencies since liberation have been receiving from the central government a uniform sum per pupil for maintenance.

Many fundamental changes which extend far beyond the mere change of name have occurred in the character of Homes for orphans. Pre-war Homes for orphans resembled military barracks for the most part. Children of the same age and sex were housed together, and they led a military

kind of life. They all did the same thing at the same time; there was a common bedroom which afforded privacy to no child; they did their homework together in large halls. Today's policy, however, aims at making life in the Children's Homes as close to family life as possible. For instance children of both sexes and various ages are grouped together in one home; children wear individual dress, not the pre-war uniform. Today, regimentation has been abandoned in favour of a free and varied life which helps the children to learn self-dependence, initiative, resourcefulness and responsibility.

A clear change has been made from pre-war closed Homes, isolated from the world—often even maintaining their own schools—to open Homes—in close, living contact with schools, youth organizations and adults. Thus, orphan children are no longer cut off from the rest of society, but participate freely and normally in life outside of the home.

Orphans, youngsters from rural areas and poor families, who before the war had no access to secondary schools, are now provided for in boarding schools and dormitories. At present, there are 839 such establishments attended by over 52,000 young people, and 620 of those are operated by the government.

—*Social Welfare in Poland, March 1949.*

MENTAL HEALTH INSTITUTE IN U.S.

A National Institute of Mental Health has been established in the United States. As part of the system of research institutes of the U. S. Public Health Service, it will co-ordinate public and private mental health activities throughout the nation.

The new institute also will work closely with the World Federation of Mental Health in the global program to eliminate the known causes of mental illness and to find new means of curing the mentally ill. Dr. Leonard A. Scheele, Surgeon of the

United States, points out that mental illness is responsible for the hospitalization of thousands of patients and for the partial incapacitation of many others. It is also, he says, a basic cause of many of mankind's great social problems—delinquency, crime, divorce and alcoholism.

Aims of the Institute.—The broad aims of the new mental-health organization are to gain more knowledge of the cause, prevention and control of mental illness, to train research and other personnel in greater numbers and to help develop community mental-health programs. The institute is supported by Federal Government funds.

The institute will co-ordinate Federal-state-local mental-health programs, including those already in progress. It also will train workers in the methods of research and treatment and make cash grants for experimental work by universities and individual scientists.

Funds will be granted to the various states for state and community mental-health programs. The Federal Government will provide \$ 2 for every \$ 1 spent by the states for research.

The main research clinic of the new institute is under construction at Bethesda, Maryland just north of Washington, D. C., near the other national health institutes.

Advantages of the Location.—Scheele

says that by close proximity to other health clinics; "the mental health program will be able to take full advantage of the extensive investigations being made into other diseases as well as the programs of basic research in the various laboratories and organizations of the National Institutes of Health." The solution to human illness, he says, "requires the co-operative skills of many scientific disciplines."

The American public is showing a greater interest than ever before in mental health, Dr. Howard A. Rusk, associate editor of the *New York Times*, indicates in an article. Rusk notes that in the last two years community mental-health services have been established in 27 additional states and territories. As a result, all states and territories now have such services on the community level. During the last year, 36 new clinics were established in 36 states, and 67 clinics in 26 states were expanded.

Under the national Mental Health Act passed by the U. S. Congress in 1946, research projects have been carried out to study the causes, diagnostic methods and treatment procedures for all types of mental diseases and diseases of the nervous system, including multiple sclerosis, epilepsy and cerebral palsy. In addition, many individuals have been trained in psychiatry, social work and psychiatric nursing, to make the benefits of modern methods of treating mental illnesses more widely available.

LABOUR WELFARE

Welfare implies faring well. We say that one is faring well when he enjoys good health and reasonable amenities of life. These are: nourishing food, comfortable clothing, decent living place and facilities to appreciate the arts of life. Everyone knows, that all these follow a good income.

Now, labour welfare mean generally the assurance of these amenities to our working population. The provision of these constitutes the minimum conditions of good living.

It is well-known that our workers dwell amidst horrible circumstances of squalor and congestion. Not only is infant mor-

tality highest amongst the workers but the span of life of the average worker is very short. The health of our workers is very poor due to various causes. Yet they normally work a minimum of eight hours per day, earning about Rs. 80 all-told per month. Further, hardly one per cent of them is able to read and write. Altogether it is a fair statement to make that our worker's life is a brief and unrelieved biography of poverty, leisureless work, ignorance, superstition and exploitation. Their environment and condition of life are such that they perpetuate their handicaps in their children with the consequence that the same wretched situation has continued through generations.

It may be asked; who is to be blamed for this state of affairs? I shall not embark on the futile quest of the culprit. We are, every adult one of us, directly or indirectly responsible for this situation and hence, should help bring about socially desirable conditions of living to our workers. It appears that certain hardships are inherent in modern large-scale industrial enterprises. When a person works in a modern factory, he works in highly artificial conditions of noise, light, temperature, dust, smoke and so on. These definitely affect his health and mental outlook. Also, since he works with a complex power-driven machine, the worker is liable to get hurt, sometimes fatally. Since man's bodily mechanism has limited capacities for adjustment, adjustments have to be made in the environment itself to meet the human needs of the workers. Such adjustments constitute a part of the welfare activities, and this is legitimately a function of the management. There are also other needs of the workers to be satisfied, such as, need for water and washing, first-aid, shelter and rest, lunch and several other

conveniences. Most of these are prescribed by the Factories Act of 1948 which pays more detailed attention to welfare measures than similar acts in any other country. This is so because most of the managements in our country were slow in recognising and providing for the needs of the labourers. And Government, therefore, had to enforce these regulations. The Factories Act also prescribes the appointment of welfare officers in every factory wherein 500 or more workers are ordinarily employed; and wherein more than 50 women workers are employed, it further prescribes the maintenance of a Creche.

Most of these regulations are reasonable and the Government has done well in legislating along these lines. It may be said that when these provisions are enforced, the welfare needs of the workers in their work places will have to be taken care of. Not only in factories, but in mines and other industries as far as possible similar measures are being planned to minimise the employment hazards of workers and also to provide human amenities. And for these the burden is rightly placed on the management. Also the Workman's Compensation Act and the Women's Maternity Benefits Act further take care of the workers' need for assistance.

When we come to the scope and extent of labour welfare activities, we enter into a very interesting but highly controversial field. What is the limit of labour welfare activity? Does it end by the taking care of the needs of labourers in their work places, or does it extend beyond the borders of the plant? The worker is a social being. He has his wife and children, and may be, old parents, for whom he has to have a house of his own. After the day's work he returns to his house for rest, peace and recreation. There are the complex

economic, social and cultural needs of the family to be satisfied. Perhaps, household articles have to be bought. Where shall he go? Should the manager of the factory provide markets for his buying? Perhaps, the worker is ill, or his wife is sick, or may be, his child or parents. Again, should the management have a hospital for the care of the worker and his family? The worker's children need to go to a school. Is it management's function to maintain a school? Sometimes the worker finds it hard to find even a home. In that case should the owner of the factory build houses for his houseless workers? These are some of the questions which it is difficult to answer. Yet the welfare of the worker is closely involved in all these considerations. If the working conditions of the factory are excellent and yet the home conditions are miserable, the worker's morale and efficiency are bound to break down. How can the labourer work with concentration when his wife is ill, and needs medical attention? Can he be happy at his job when he had no sleep yesterday because his house was leaking?

Home conditions and work in the factory are intimately related. Therefore attention to the worker's handicaps and needs *only within the factory* is but a part of labour welfare. If the worker's welfare has to be fully planned, his complete life, as also that of his immediate relations has to be taken into account. Living is a total phenomenon. Continuous influences appear and reappear in all its spheres. Persons are like plants which, despite water and good soil, wither away when remote breezes and stars do not bring their timely blessings.

It is now generally conceded that labour welfare measures, to be adequate and comprehensive, should also consist of housing,

medical attention, recreation, education and economic security of the worker and his family. Clearly, the provision of these by the employer cannot be legislatively enforced. Yet, a few big industrial groups have undertaken of their own accord, the housing of a part of their labour force, and have also introduced medical and hospital care, recreation programmes, schools and other educational and cultural activities, and economic security schemes like savings fund, co-operative enterprises, bonus and provident fund schemes and so on. Some of these maintain considerable labour welfare personnel. Such comprehensive welfare schemes keep labour contented, in good spirit and health, reduce absenteeism and turnover, and improve productive efficiency. But a plan of welfare comprising the economic security schemes, education, recreation, medical attention and housing of workers—and all these well related to the maintenance of good working conditions,—is very costly. But if the plan is worked with vision, understanding and leadership, it will yield such beneficial results as will reduce the ultimate costs of production for industry, apart from the good citizens it will create. It will also definitely bring about better industrial relations. In the long run, labour welfare is a sound investment for all.

Many employers in our country are unable to undertake comprehensive welfare programmes of which I am talking. Even the amenities that are provided for within the factory are done grudgingly. Sometimes, they cannot afford to introduce an elaborate programme. More often, they lack knowledge, leadership and foresight to do it. Some even evade obligations to workers for want of the sense of social justice. The good ones are so few that their welfare activities touch but a bare few of the

labouring population.

But who should bear the cost and responsibility of labour welfare? There can be but one answer to this. Those who benefit by the programme should bear the cost, and since the entire society is benefited by labour welfare, the costs of it should be charged to the account of society. Even to-day, where the employers sponsor welfare schemes, they shift a part of the costs on to the consumers and to the workers. To the consumer they transfer it in the shape of high prices; and to the labourers in the shape of wage cuts, or by keeping the level of wage down. Thus a part of labour welfare costs are borne involuntarily by the employees and by the public. Welfare is really a type of addition to the wage; and more welfare measures mean more real wages. It has a tendency to keep down nominal wages. But, as far as the public is concerned, I feel that if by paying higher prices to articles produced, the welfare of the workers is assured, we should not grudge paying higher prices. National welfare is bound up with labour welfare and it is worth making some sacrifices for it. The employers should similarly realize their responsibility to the nation, and in the light of their capacity to make the sacrifice, they should bear their share of the cost of labour welfare. When the costs are well distributed, nobody would be complaining.

But there are several dangers and disadvantages involved in ill-conceived plans of labour welfare. By doing everything for the worker we take away his self-reliance, and make him more and more dependant on the employer. This is the greatest psychological disadvantage of all employer-financed welfare measures. In the West, particularly in the U. S. A., workers frown on the welfare activities of their employers.

They would like to be self-dependant, dwell in their own homes, play their own games, have their own medical assistance, and send their children to any school they like. They would feel humiliated by some of the welfare measures by which our workers would be pleased. Thus for instance, if free cloth is given to workers, or free milk provided to their children, or free schools built by the employer, the workers in the U. S. A. would feel insulted. They would like all these to be embodied in their wage packets, rather. This shows how much independent minded they are. The workers prefer to have their welfare taken care of by themselves through their unions. This, I feel, is the right approach to labour welfare. And our labour unions should bestow more attention to this problem.

But the creation of this attitude in the minds of our workers will take a long time. Moreover, the conditions in our country are different from those obtaining in the U. S. A. In view of the very low incomes which our workers earn and the lack of leadership amongst them, it is absolutely necessary to institute well-organised labour welfare activities, but the objective and technique employed should be to make the workers self-reliant in course of time; so much so that they would be able to run their own welfare activities instead of being dependant on the employers or the Government. Any other attitude or objective or technique adopted would perpetuate the disability of our workers, and therefore, is treacherous to their cause and progress. Till such time as the workers are not able to take care of themselves, labour welfare will be a necessary burden of the industries and the Government. Where the employer is unable to provide all the amenities needed, the Government and the public bodies

should take up the planning. And here is a field for our labour unions to make their contribution by uniting with others, irrespective of their political ideologies.

The success of labour welfare depends on proper leadership and attitude. Welfare administration is a scientific process and needs qualified personnel. Programmes have to be conceived in relation to the needs of the workers and all the activities have to be carefully integrated. Participation of the workers has to be secured in all the activities and as far as possible they should be made to feel that it is a pro-

gramme of the workers run for the workers by the workers. Then there will be a real functioning of Industrial Democracy. Along side of welfare planning, wages have to be raised to enable workers to participate more fully in the activities. Social work means helping the handicapped individual help himself; and welfare is best administered where workers help themselves to overcome their limitations and organise to achieve the best good of themselves and of all.

—Radio Talk by Dr. M. V. Moorthy.

By permission of Station Director,
A. I. R., Bombay.

NON-PROFIT NATIONAL AGENCY HELPS PREVENT BLINDNESS

Mary had always had weak eyes. By the time she was ready to start school in the United States, it was obvious she would not be able to keep pace with children having normal vision. However, Mary was fortunate. There was a school in her community with a "sight-saving" class.

There, Mary found special lighting, books with extra-large type, pencils with thick black lead, and many other things to help her see and learn. Yet, in oral recitation, singing, and other activities she was able to join in with the normal children. Now Mary is growing up like all the other children in her community.

Forty years ago, before the formation of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, Mary would not have done as well—there were no "sight-saving" classes then. Today, there are 635 such classes in all sections of the United States. The Society hopes that eventually there will be enough special classes for all children with defective vision.

Encouraging teachers and school authorities to set up "sight-saving" classes is one of the many activities of the Society,

a non-profit, voluntary agency supported by membership fees and contributions. Its aims are to learn the causes of blindness or impaired vision, to advocate measures that will eliminate such causes, and to spread knowledge concerning the care and use of the eyes.

One of the Society's first undertakings in 1908 was a successful drive to have prophylactic drops put into the eyes of babies at birth to prevent blindness caused by ophthalmia neonatorum. At that time, this disease was responsible for 28 percent of all blindness among pupils in American schools for the blind. The Society's campaign of public education brought about laws making use of the eye drops mandatory. As a result, the number of babies losing their sight from this disease has been reduced 90 percent.

Today, the Society is campaigning to reduce eye hazards in industry. It also is urging that the eyes of pre-school children be carefully tested and is sponsoring research in the causes and treatment of eye diseases.

The success of the Society in the United States led to the formation of an International Association for the Prevention of Blindness in 1929. This organization suspended its activities during the war but now is at work again. It recently was

recognised as a non-governmental affiliate of the United Nations World Health Organization. The American Society is helping the other American republics develop sight-saving programs.

YOUNG CHILDREN NEED GUIDANCE TOO.

In the modern elementary school the teacher is vitally concerned about the needs and the problems of her pupils. She knows that learning is largely determined by the child's interests, motives, capacities, maturity, and readiness. She recognises that the child is a person with assets, liabilities, and potentialities that must be studied, understood, and guided. Child study is indeed the key to a successful guidance program.

Some children are rebellious, unhappy, submissive, over-aggressive, destructive, fearful, and negativistic. At one time these emotionally and socially maladjusted children were considered inherently "bad". This theory has been long discarded by educators. Undesirable pupil behaviour has an underlying cause or causes. Anti-social conduct, failure, introversion, indifference, insecurity, delinquency may be caused by disabilities, conflicts, and frustrations. Among these negative factors are: malnutrition, defective speech, impaired eyesight, faulty motor co-ordination, a broken home, a sarcastic teacher, an over-indulgent parent, reading disability, and unwholesome environmental influences. In other words, a maladjusted child has a problem that he can not solve. Instead of mastering the problem, he has become its slave.

Therapy (and many of our children are in dire need of it) must be based upon the causes which produce symptoms of a mal-adjusted child. To discover such causes

relationship in child behaviour is most important. Once this relationship has been clearly established much can be done to help the maladjusted child. To discover such causes and to suggest ways of overcoming them is the function of guidance. In this program the classroom teacher is the key person.

In introducing any program, objectives must be clearly formulated and communicated to the entire staff. Perhaps the major objective of a guidance program is gaining the confidence and the friendship of those children whom we are seeking to help. The classroom teacher is in a unique position to understand the basic needs of children—physical needs, a sense of security, recognition, need for affection, and new experiences.

Discovering minor adjustments at an early age so that major maladjustments can be possibly averted in the future is another significant aim of a good guidance program. Why wait until the child enters junior high school in order to get the benefit of guidance if the maladjustment manifested itself in the second grade of the elementary school? Effective guidance should be a program of prevention and should be applied as soon as the symptoms of maladjustment appear.

The question is often asked: which children need guidance? A suggested list follows:

1. Those non-participating in school activities
2. Those displaying anti-social and negative traits of social behaviour
3. Those lacking in self-confidence
4. Those invariably seeking the center of attraction
5. Those doing school work far below their abilities and capacities
6. Those showing irrational or excessive fears and anxieties
7. Those indulging in excessive day-dreaming
8. Those being irritable and temperamental without apparent cause
9. Those feeling a sense of rejection at school or at home or at both places
10. Those belittling their own achievements and over-emphasizing their shortcomings
11. Those manifesting moods of being very unhappy and depressed
12. Those showing traits of being over-shy, timid, and introspective.

One fruitful guidance technique in the elementary school is the interview. Here is an opportunity for the teacher to find out the possible cause for the child's maladjustment, to help the child understand himself better by talking things over, to evaluate the child's feelings and attitudes, and to develop with the co-operation of the child a plan of action resulting in better personality adjustment.

During the interview the most important principle is the establishment of a friendly, informal feeling between the child and the interviewer. The interviewer should have objectivity, sympathy, understanding, and a sincere interest in the child's problems and needs. Looking for causes for the child's maladjustment, the interviewer, in the role

of an interested friend rather than that of a judge, can do much in establishing rapport between himself and the child. This attitude increases the child's confidence.

Tactfully and sympathetically, the interviewer should ascertain as much as possible during the interview about the attitudes and feelings of the child. The child should be encouraged: (1) to tell about his activities outside-of-school hours; (2) to talk about his hobbies and special interests; (3) to describe his friends and why he has chosen them; (4) to indicate his interests and dislikes at school; and (5) to discuss his problems, needs, and difficulties. As the result of the interview the child should feel that he has a friend who is interested and is willing to help. Let him feel that he can come to you to talk over his problems.

Descriptive records should not be made during interviews, but after the child has left the room. The purpose of the particular interview, the information obtained and the results of the interview should be indicated. Suggestions made during the interview, any plan of action to be undertaken, plans for future interviews with the particular child, should also be included in this descriptive record.

By means of the interview, an attempt may be made to give maladjusted children a measure of security, recognition, belongingness, and affection denied many of them in their daily lives. Understanding children and assisting them to meet their basic needs are the primary objectives of a worthwhile guidance program in the elementary school. The all-important goal is each child's adjustment to all phases of living—physical, emotional, and intellectual.

By Edward Dangler from *Understanding The child*. April, 1949.

INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE: ITS RELIGIOUS ASPECT.

"Everybody has forgotten religion, that is why everything is going wrong everywhere," was the lament of an illiterate Indian worker dissatisfied with his working conditions as well as with affairs of his trade union. A world under the grip of a philosophy of hedonism cannot but be divided against itself, and such a division must create more and more emotional stresses amongst individuals and nations. The industrial worker cannot escape his share of them, and the industrial psychologist is fighting heroically against them with objective methods of experimental science, but is not succeeding half as well as an Indian saint working subjectively through a religious philosophy of life.

Mahatma Gandhi was the founder and father of the Ahmedabad Textile Union. He picked up a rotting mass of the humblest and most depressed humanity and remodelled it in a shapely cast of human dignity. He taught a down-trodden people to stand erect again. This union has to-day a membership of 65,000 textile workers, and has an annual income of 2½ lakhs of rupees. The association maintains about 20 centres which cater to the intellectual and social needs of its members by setting up libraries and reading rooms and facilities for physical culture and recreation. It conducts 6 day-schools and 2 night-schools, and one nursery school. Scholarships are made available to working-class students receiving education in secondary schools. The association also runs a well-equipped dispensary with an average annual of 75,747. A programme of opening ante-natal and post-natal clinics, and medical examinations of the workers and their dependents is making satisfactory progress. The association has its own press and publishes a fortnightly maga-

zine. The affairs of the association are governed by boards composed of the elected representatives from amongst its members. These boards are reconstituted every two years, and they have to maintain a paid staff of 236 persons to carry on their work.

How did the Mahatma achieve so much from so little? One hears a lot of talk about freedom now-a-days. Political freedom is most in the air but hardly any spiritual freedom. You cannot talk to a labour leader without hearing a sermon from him on the freedom from want, but what a human being wants most is inner peace. The industrial physician's panacea for increasing production is freedom from illness, but mental and religious attitudes have so much to do with bodily health. There is however one freedom which covers all other freedoms—freedom from self. The Mahatma succeeded with the industrial worker of Ahmedabad, because he taught him to strive for the freedom. He needed lieutenants for his work. He looked for only one qualification in them. They must be reformers who want to reform themselves before others. He placed before them a higher philosophy of life, a religious creed of truth, non-violence and service, and he succeeded because he lived it in his own life with them and for them.

The East dreams, the West acts; the East is passive and other-worldly, the West is dynamic and practical. Such are the slogans which a type of occidental thought developed through objective methods of experimental science fling against oriental philosophies of subjective methods. Upto a point there is truth in the slogans, but there is fallacy too. What motivates each end is the search for happiness in life on this earth and not in any other life elsewhere, and

one of the main instruments of research the oriental mind uses is meditation. But meditation is not an end in itself. It is an attempt at integration of mind and its functions in order to evolve action on a higher plane and of a higher type to make life fuller and richer with a more lasting happiness, freed from the fears, frustrations and maladjustments of modern civilization based on a hedonistic philosophy of life.

Nor is meditation the only instrument of oriental research for attainment of happiness. There are at least four such main ones, and they are adapted to the different natures and temperaments of men. Any one or combination of them can lead a person to attain his natural goal of happiness in this world, and the instruments that Mahatma Gandhi used whereby he achieved so much from so little, are Karma-Yoga,—realisation through work and duty, and Bhakti-Yoga,—realisation through devotion and prayer. He woke up a vegetating mass of humanity into action by placing before it a religious ideal to live and die for. He gave the industrial worker of Ahmedabad inner peace if not material prosperity. This worker is an exact prototype of the industrial worker anywhere else in India,—illiterate and ignorant, eating the same unbalanced diet, and living in unhealthy slums. But all the same he is imbued (thanks to Mahatma Gandhi) with a bit more of the spiritual idealism, the abiding heritage of his land. Whereas most of the trade unions of the land have a shifting membership and a changing leadership torn with party politics and personal jealousies, the Ahmedabad Textile Union is steady and progressive with a religious concern for amelioration of the condition of its members. To-day illegal strikes are the order of the day all over the country, but they are an unknown quantity to this union. Its members have given up liquor and it is not often that they quarrel

with their employers; and when they do fight, they do so non-violently, and to teach their employers a bit of religion; and once started there is no going back and there are no blacklegs.

The West has its own methods of experimental science, and the East cannot help admiring, appreciating and even imitating them, for amongst the four main paths advocated by oriental philosophy for realising a man's own divinity, one is "Gnyana-Yoga",—realisation through knowledge. But what confounds the East is the absence in the western methods of any serious attempt at an approach to the concept of the wholeness of life. The four main paths of oriental research are known as Yogas and Yogas mean methods of union. So when science picks up a particular function of the body or of the mind and studies it apart from all the rest, oriental thought trained to look out for unity amongst diversity cannot help asking, to what purpose? to what end? Nor can it help concluding that science divorced from religion is humanity mortgaged to Satan. The last world war is proof thereof, and the growing fear of an approaching third war is another.

Science dissects and interdissects and has now reached the stage of splitting the atom. The bewildered oriental mind wonders how long it will take them to split up the world in six tiny atoms as to make it unfit for human habitation. But when we read of achievements of their industrial nurse we feel reassured that she will not allow any such devilish development of science. Her religion, not of her birth or her rituals, but the religion she lives daily in her work-a-day life and imparts to others is mightier than their science.

A sick workman is a piece of humanity broken into bits. The physician picks up

one to study it under his stethoscope, the bacteriologist wants another for his microscope, the psychologist a third one and so on. And each of them brings his own particular knowledge to bear on the particular bit, and draws particular inferences from it, sometimes right, sometimes wrong. But in the end it is the nurse who gathers up the various bits and reconstructs a whole from them with the virtue of her motherhood and the alchemy of her smile. While scientists keep busy sharpening their intellects in this or that particular direction the nurse enlarges her heart to include in it the whole of humanity.

McGrath has said in her book "Nursing in Commerce and Industry" that industry needs a superior nurse. It is better if she had used the word religious in place of superior, for only such a nurse as lives religion in her life can be a superior one. I cite an experience.

We are responsible for the running of two creches. The matron of one is a qualified intellectual type well up in English, and of the other an unqualified religious type hardly knowing any English worth the name. Last year an American professor started in Bombay a training class for women in child guidance clinics. Though the lectures were to be given in English we were yet anxious that the unqualified matron join the class, as we felt that she was more likely to capture the spirit of the training, through the practical work if not the lectures. She herself was suffering from an inferiority complex and brought up half-a-dozen excuses, but she was overruled and practically coerced into joining the class. The professor was kind enough at our request to supply her with case-taking forms in her own mother-tongue. Within a fortnight it was reported that she was one of the best pupils of the class, and to-day we

find that there is far more cheerfulness in between the staff and the children.

It is acknowledged all over the industrial world that the most successful leader of the safety first movement in industry is not one who has the highest scientific training, but one who can best impart to others the divinity within himself, and thus bring out from them their own.

Psychotherapy is a creditable advance western science has made in treatment of psychogenic neurotic conditions. But it does not go as far as it should and never will unless it is supplemented by a sound philosophy of life. Merely to relieve the pain of a mental conflict through release of emotional tension is like relieving renal colic with an opiate. It does not cure the disease permanently. For this the colic needs a surgical operation and the change in diet and other daily routines, and the mental conflict integration of the mind and its functions, and a new orientation on the meaning of life. That however is only possible by replacing the philosophy of hedonism with something higher. Swami Akhilananda in his book "Hindu Psychology" has said "the real removal of the disease can only take place when psychiatry and religion in the broadest sense of the term, amalgamate, co-operate, and co-ordinate properly."

Mere absence of illness or release of emotional tension is not positive health. To realise a true concept of positive health of an industrial worker the physician has to supplement curative first aid with industrial hygiene, and the psychologist has to practise psychotherapy in a religious background. The West has achieved wonderful progress in industrial hygiene. The East has much to learn from the West for advancing industrial health on the physical plane. All the same it has a definite contribution to

make towards its progress on the mental plane.

The progress of science at the mechanical end of industries is simply marvellous. The disturbing element however is that side by side there is a great increase in the number of strikes all over the world. Evidently a purely mechanistic theory of life cannot advance human relations. For this some humanizing of the system is necessary. The need of the hour is increased production, —more goods, and still more goods, but "people produce—not machines." What is more important is the man behind the machine. It may be said to the credit of science that there is no mechanical problem it cannot tackle successfully, but it has yet to learn how to use its discoveries to advance the fundamentals of life. Hopeful signs are however visible on the horizon of the post-war era. It was exactly through the objective methods of scientific investigation that a psychologist like Henry Link staged "The Return to Religion." Such a happy transformation is now apparent in several other directions too. Manufacturers of machines are now more and more for incorporating humanics in the designs and techniques of their machines, and the recent trend of colour-conditioning machines is a laudable move in the right direction. Manufacturers are realising more and more that human nature is subject to moods when what is wrong

appears as right, and are more and more particular to devise guards on machines that will protect a worker against such evil moods also. This is the only way to solve successfully the burning and most taxing problem of industry to-day—strained management-labour relations. Human relation can only improve through fusion of science with religion, and it is most natural that such a fusion takes place at the industrial medicine end.

The literature of industrial medicine is replete with thoughts on morale, motivation, supervision, group psychology, human factor management-labour relations, *etc.* But they are all pawns on the chess-board of industrial medicine which move to the dictates of ancient and eternal verities of life like 'do unto others as you would have them do unto you.' Modern industrial psychology lends support to this view. This science is more and more for proving the ultimate goodness of human nature, and that co-operation, not conflict, is its inner aim, and through upholding the true fundamentals of life, it makes a very near approach to Swami Vivekananda's definition of religion, —as "manifestation of the divinity that is already in man." Truly industrial medicine is religion rediscovered by science, or, at least, should be.

—By H. P. Dastur, from *The Journal of the Indian Medical Association*, Vol. XVIII, No. 8, May, 1949.

Taj

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BOOK REVIEWS

Youth Comes of Age. By Wellington G. Pierce. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. Pp. 400 \$ 2.50.

"This book is concerned with a number of the problems of personal relations that high school boys and girls frequently discuss in their informal groups—friendships, dates, brother-and-sister arguments, parent problems, and the long look ahead to marriage and a home of their own." So says the author in his Preface and continues, "The problems that have been included for discussion have met a double test—the judgment of experienced counselors of youth as to what matters are of the most concern in youth's coming of age and the demands and preferences of the young people themselves. More than three thousand high school boys and girls have had a part in developing this book."

"Youth Comes of Age" is divided into fourteen chapters and each chapter makes enjoyable and instructive reading. It also traces the story of Larry and Betty, two healthy young college students who are brought up in a normal well-adjusted home. The book is beautifully printed and illustrated.

According to the author "You are what you have been becoming. 'Man is the product of all his yesterdays'". Therefore, the influence of the family upon you in your childhood and youth counts much. A good family life gives you a feeling of security, poise and confidence. The ability to get along reasonably well with different members of the family is a fine test of your ability to get along with different people in life. Your regard for your father, mother, brother and sister will lead you to show the same regard for your boy

friend, a girl friend, a lifemate, and even all humanity.

Speaking of choosing a lifemate, a boy or girl should achieve before marriage a normal life of wholesome association which according to Wellington Pierce includes a developing interest in the welfare of others; ease when in a mixed group; ability to be good company on dates; an accurate understanding of the physiology of sex; and finally an intelligent attitude toward sex and personality.

"Predicting Happiness in Marriage" is one of the most important chapters of the book. "A contemporary writer" says the author "has described the successful marriage as 'a long conversation that always seems too short'. Young people today want to know how they can lay the foundations for a happy, growing and enduring marriage partnership." The youth of today have this advantage over their parents, that counsel is available to them from social scientists who have made a deep study of human relations. A happy, stable, socialised young man or woman that is a well-adjusted person will hardly fail to make a good lifemate.

Who is a well-adjusted person? He is the one who goes forth to meet his problems with courage and confidence; he has satisfying social relations; he is able to live effectively in the present and does not live in a dream world but a real world; he is able to come to a decision on an important matter with the minimum of struggle or worry; he is on friendly terms with himself and with life and is an integrated personality.

"Youth Comes of Age" is indeed a book which should adorn the bookshelf of every



Late Sir Ardeshir Dalal

We wish to place on record our deep sense of sorrow at the sad demise, on Saturday the 8th October, 1949, of Sir Ardeshir Dalal, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of this Institute since April, 1949. He distinguished himself as an able administrator, eminent industrialist and above all a great patriot. We need not recount here the various important positions he held, with great distinction, during his brilliant career. It is enough to say that wherever he served, either in the government or in the famous industrial House of Tatas, he left behind him a great tradition for others to

emulate. The eloquent tributes paid to him spontaneously by the Press and the Public prove fully the esteem in which he was held in this country.

Sir Ardeshir was a member of the Board of Trustees of this Institute since 1938. Throughout this long period of his connection, he was a great source of inspiration to those responsible for the working of the Institute. We convey through these columns our heartfelt condolences to Lady Dalal and other members of his family in their bereavement.

LABOUR WELFARE PERSONNEL AND ITS TRAINING

B. B. GUJRAL

After portraying the grave maladjustment of the human factor in our industrial civilisation the writer in this valuable article emphasises the necessity of trained personnel for labour welfare work. He critically surveys the agencies currently engaged in this work—the State, the Employers and the Trade Unions. According to him the absence of trained personnel to conduct the administration of welfare work is one of the basic defects of these agencies. He vividly describes the qualities required for welfare personnel and suggests an elaborate training scheme.

Mr. Gujral is Principal of the School for training Labour Welfare Workers, Bombay.

The great scientific and technological changes in the field of industrial production, while immensely increasing the production-potential, have had two major consequences. On the one hand they necessitated greater specialization and technical skill and on the other hand they resulted in greater social maladjustments. Orderly social progress, therefore, requires a solution both of the technical and of the human problems of the industrial civilization.

Maladjustments of the human factor.—

The changeover of industry from labour-supply basis to the 'power-machine system' has resulted in vast social evils of disease, starvation, mal-nutrition in voluntary unemployment, filthy and bad condition of living and other discomforts of life. Intolerable conditions of work—inadequate lighting, bad ventilation, unbearable temperature and humidity, unscientific methods of recruitment, placement, transfers, promotions or discharges, lack of any facility of training or vocational guidance and absence of any other amenities in the factory, excessive physical and mental fatigue, enormous loss of human lives in the avoidable industrial accidents—all these when accompanied with rigid discipline of the new system, create adverse industrial environment which ultimately results in social disharmony, unrest, conflict and even war. The changed status of workers which follows from their permanent divorce from the instruments of production, the entrenchment of the wage-system and

the impersonal relationship further aggravate the situation, creating an unexplainable aggressiveness in workers' attitudes. No civilization can last long which is based on such foundations. It has, therefore, been realised by all—State, employers as well as by workers' organizations—that the successful solution of the problems of adjusting the human factor to this changed industrial environment and of adopting our social institutions to the vast mechanical changes requires a fundamental reorientation of their traditional and customary attitudes as well as their constructive co-operation with one another. It has, therefore, necessitated a transformation of the old police State into the State devoted to the welfare of the citizens and aiming at creating conditions of social justice, a transformation of the old selfish, autocratic and unsympathetic management into the management which offers free scope for the development of workers' personality and accepts his rights in industry. It recognizes that "a high standard of efficiency can be expected only from persons who are physically fit and free from mental worries, that is, only from persons who are properly trained, properly housed, properly fed and properly clothed."*

Trade Unions also have assumed (though rather gradually) a new role of constructive co-operation, shedding off their old restrictive practices and helping both the employers and the State in their efforts to raise efficiency and productivity of the entire

* (Bombay T. L. Report Page 254).

economy. They are not merely the combat units or fighting organizations (as they used to be in the past) but are pre-eminently, both by law and by practice, organs of functional government continuously working for social peace and stabilization.

Specialization of functions.—The second result is the application of the scientific principles in the field of human administration. It has been realised that "specialization of function is just as essential in the control of human relation as it is in the manipulation of mechanical and material forces."*

This has necessitated the establishment of specialised agencies for administering the welfare services manned by competent, qualified and well-trained personnel in order to attain the maximum advantages of functional divisions of labour and responsibility. In factories and other industrial establishments personnel departments are introduced for the regulation of employment relations, and personnel or welfare officers are appointed to control the same. The foreman, who hitherto was invested with a very wide range of functions and powers, is now divested of the same and is made to devote himself only to the technical sides of production.

Training.—The need for trained personnel in charge of welfare services, whether provided by the State, trade unions or employers, can hardly be exaggerated. Organization and technical efficiency are indispensable to a sound welfare programme. Most of the schemes for training welfare personnel, however, are still experimental and tentative. In India, until very recently, there were few facilities for training for such work. Untrained people were appointed in the personnel jobs in the industry as well as in the State social services as Factory Inspectors,

Conciliators etc. Unscrupulous and self-interested individuals came to acquire control over the trade unions for their own selfish ends and diverted the whole movement into wrong channels. Even now the facilities for such training are hardly adequate. The Mill Owners' Association is running a course for Labour Officers; the Tata Institute of Social Sciences in Bombay (which is in existence for the last 13 years) offers a choice of several types of training courses in social work; the Calcutta University also has launched a scheme for social work training in Calcutta. Recently the National Y.W.C.A. School of Social Work was affiliated to the Delhi University. An institute of social sciences has been set up by the Kashi Vidyapith in Benares. The Government also has moved in the matter of training enthusiastic young men and women for its social services and welfare programmes. For instance the Government of India set up a Staff Training Centre in Delhi under the supervision of an expert from the Ministry of Labour and National Service, U.K., for training the officers of the Employment Services, as it was realised that a trained, competent and reliable managerial staff was necessary for the efficient working of the scheme of Employment Exchanges. The Government of Bombay also has set up a School for Training Labour Welfare Workers for the purpose of providing sound theoretical and practical training on scientific principles in labour work including welfare and also to provide the existing labour welfare workers with opportunities for advanced study and training (vide prospectus of the School). Three different schools for Trade Unionism and Citizenship have also been established in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur for the purpose of educating workers in the basic principles of civics, and trade union work.

* (Watkins Dodds "Management of Labour Relations.")

Some of the trade unions also, especially the Textile Labour Association at Ahmedabad, have opened special classes for the workers with the same object. On the whole, however, trade unions in India have not sufficiently realised the importance of such constructive work as is done by the trade unions in other industrial countries especially Great Britain and U. S. A. But "the time has now come when the trade unions should train and employ competent men to investigate the technical conditions of each industry and to draft schemes whereby the trade unions could help to get more production without losing any of their ability to protect the worker from exploitation."*

In Great Britain special correspondence courses as well as regular classes have been organized by the National Council of Labour Colleges (N. C. L. C.) and the Workers' Educational Association (W. E. A.). Facilities for an intensive study of labour problems in all their aspects (theoretical and practical) are provided at the Ruskin College, Oxford, as well as the London School of Economics. The trade union congress has also set up very extensive schemes for workers' education in trade union problems.

Workers' organization in America have also not lagged behind in their realization of the importance of education for workers. Samuel Gompers once remarked: "Whatever the progress American Labour makes, rests on an educational basis." The phenomenal growth of unionism in America has necessitated vast educational programmes to enable the workers to participate more effectively not only in the activities of their unions but also in their local community life and to understand the principles of progressive trade union movement. The

Workers' Education Bureau helps the workers' organizations in their educational programmes in many ways especially by providing facilities for training Educational Directors and other staff workers for the union. Labour Education is now an important function of the American Trade Unions at every level—national, State and local. Training courses for shop-stewards and officers in public relations, research and guidance in union contract negotiation have been started in the Southern State of Kentucky and other States. Labour Institutes have been organised with the help of the Bureau and the Universities. (e.g. RUTGER LABOUR INSTITUTE was set up with the co-operation of the Rutgers University and the New Jersey State Federation of Labour.) These Institutes train the students deputed by the different trade unions in the country.

The Universities also, have realised their responsibility in the matter of imparting social education. In Great Britain social service training is provided by more than 18 social service departments of the universities. In U. S. A. there are now 80 universities which with the co-operation of the Workers' Education Bureau and the Labour Institutes run courses in Labour Management Relation and Trade Union Organization. The universities of Harvard, Michigan and Cornell have set up very extensive and ambitious schemes of education in industrial and labour relations.

Education in India has been mostly academic in its outlook and therefore the facilities for such training whether provided by the State, the employers or the trade unions or the Universities, are very inadequate to our requirements. In view of the expanding scope of welfare services, it is necessary that the number of such training

* (Ben Roberts "Trade Unions in the New Era").

institutions should be increased and spread all over the country.

Research.—The Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee recommended the establishment of a composite institute of industrial hygiene, industrial psychology and industrial welfare for carrying on research into the problems of industrial fatigue, hygiene and psychological basis of unrest and also for the purpose of disseminating information regarding welfare activities in industrial establishments both in foreign countries and in India. In most of the leading industrial countries side by side with other such organizations and committees which form an integral part of the industrial pattern, has grown up a number of expert bodies, outside that pattern but devoted to the same purpose. In Great Britain for example the Royal Society for Prevention of Industrial Accidents, the Association of Examining Surgeons, Association of Industrial Medical Officers, Industrial Welfare Society, Institute of Welfare Workers have been organized to carry on research work in different fields of industrial welfare. Similarly Safety, Health and Welfare Museums were developed by the Industrial Research Board to advise and assist Medical Research Council in promoting scientific investigation into problems of health and their relation to the occupational environment. Safety in Mines Research Boards carry on similar work in the mines. The British Institute of Personnel Management which was started with the help of Government endeavours to approach the whole subject of Personnel Management with complete scientific objectivity. In order to improve the standard of management practice, the institute compiles organised body of knowledge about management, and promotes the development of the science of Personnel Management by training Personnel Officers,

and through the interchange of information regarding the professional standards of qualifications and conduct.

Labour Welfare, its agencies and administration.—According to the Labour Investigation Committee labour welfare means “anything done for the intellectual, physical, moral and economic betterment of workers whether by employers, by Government or other agencies over and above what is laid down by law or what is normally expected as part of the contractual benefits for which the workers may have bargained.” It may be carried on inside or outside factory with the object of achieving a better adjustment of the human factor with its industrial environment. It is partly humanitarian for it enables the workers to receive a fair share in the national income and to enjoy a richer and fuller life. It is partly economic as it raises the efficiency and morale of the workers. It has also a social advantage as it develops a sense of responsibility and dignity among workers.

State.—The State to-day is the chief instrument for raising the standard of living of its citizens and provides various social services on a very vast scale for its citizens. In India, till recently, the State was content with only a few enactments viz. the Factories Act, 1934, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, the Payment of Wages Act, 1936. The Maternity Benefit Acts were passed by some Provincial Governments. The enforcement of these enactments which provided the minimum of ‘statutory welfare’ was found very lax by the Labour Investigation Committee. There was considerable evasion on the part of the management mainly due to the lack of trained personnel, ignorance and illiteracy of the workers. With the achievement of independence the State has realised the need for the fullest utilization of the country's resources and the necessity for the rapid improvement of the standard

of living and comfort of the masses of Indian people. The Five Year Labour Programme of the Government of India aims at comprehensive measures for labour welfare (inside and outside factories) and embraces not only the workers in the organized industries but also the workers in agriculture, commercial undertakings and unorganized industries. In pursuance of these programmes the Factories Act has been revised and brought upto date. The Employees State Insurance Act, 1948 has opened a new chapter in the history of Labour Legislation. Similarly legislation for regulating condition of works in transport, mines and plantation has been planned on a scientific basis. The Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1947 establishes welfare measures and services in coal mines e.g. establishment of hospital, anti-malarial measures, facilities for education, housing etc. The Welfare Trust Funds (which were proposed at the 8th meeting of the Standing Labour Committee held in March, 1946) are proposed to be established for the purpose of providing facilities for education, health, recreation, entertainment and other general amenities for workers and their dependents. The Provincial Governments especially Bombay, U. P. and West Bengal have also launched labour welfare schemes under which welfare centres providing the facilities for education (Nursery Schools, Literacy Classes, Libraries, Cinema Shows etc.) recreation (outdoor and indoor games, radio sets, gymnasiums) health (well-equipped dispensaries and even cantens, creches, better housing with adjoining lawns in West Bengal) have been set up. The State Governments (especially Mysore, Madhyabharat) are also planning on similar lines. Comprehensive welfare facilities of different sorts have also been made available to Indian Seamen. The State, therefore, has

assumed a very wide responsibility in this sphere of providing amenities for welfare of the working class in particular. In most of the other countries also comprehensive social security measures have been organized and the State makes adequate provision for education, vocational training and guidance, medical care, recreation and better working and living conditions for its citizens. In Great Britain for example the new National Insurance Scheme which came in force on 5th July, 1948 provides an effective 'cradle-to-grave' security for all citizens. The State also provides adequate welfare amenities inside and outside factories by laying down the minimum standards in legislation, by financial help and other encouragement to the employers and other agencies in the field. In almost all the countries the State accepts its responsibility for providing adequate and sanitary housing for its citizens in general, and workers in particular.

It has, however, been realized that mere legislation is not enough. 'Social action' in order to be effective must be based on social planning and social research. It must be essentially democratic i.e. it must enlist the assistance and support of the co-operating groups and the public in general. It must be strictly enforced and it must be diligently and thoroughly executed in a co-ordinated and integrated manner. It requires co-relation, planning, central direction as well as organization personnel and leadership. "We thus see administration as a creative process in thinking, planning and action inextricably bound up with the whole agency. We see it as a process of working with people to set goals, to build organizational relationships, to distribute responsibility, to conduct programme and to evaluate accomplishments."*

* (H. B. Trecker in "The Group Process in Administration".

It is a process which is essentially dynamic and adaptable. Trained labour welfare personnel, therefore, is very essential in this task of transforming the objective of the programme into reality. An efficient personnel alone can determine and clarify the objectives, mobilize the resources, develop, direct and supervise the programme, and supply the necessary leadership to co-ordinate, change and adopt the programme to the needs of the community. "If we are to plan our national, social and economic policies we must have persons qualified to plan at all the planning points."* The social services ultimately depend on the knowledge of the staff of the real needs and requirements of the public and their methods to satisfy them. They all impinge directly on the happiness and morale of the citizen affected. "If he goes away feeling angry, thwarted and insulted his discontent spreads through his household, his street, his neighbourhood. Such discontent magnified and multiplied throughout the community swells finally to condemnation of the Government itself."† "...in the long transmission belt carrying social policy from White Hall to the private citizen, it is the interviewing officer who makes final delivery; if he is peremptory, hurried, irritable or stupid he will alienate citizens and bungle the execution policy however well-thought out may be."‡

A new technique of public relation will have to be developed and the personnel in charge of administration of social services will have to regard the public as partner in its operation. A specially trained staff with appropriate skill and efficiency is absolutely necessary for this purpose, for it alone can grasp the standards of good social work practice, the various fields of social

welfare, the theories of human behaviour as well as the political, economic and social forces underlying the contemporary society. The officers in the social services must understand the need, nature, purpose and effects of social services on the basis of the current social and industrial data. They must have a clear idea of the objective of the national policy and the connection of their jobs in furthering the same. They must also have a practical knowledge of the living and the working condition in the locality; they must be well-acquainted with the local geography as well as with the population, the state of public health, city administration as well as the various social service agencies in the field. They must combine vision and ability to plan objectively with sympathy and understanding of the people and their problem. An efficient social service worker must win the confidence and respect of the public by his self-discipline, balance and maturity of judgement. The successful administration of the legislative enactments depends on the officer's thorough independence, his strict impartiality, his patience, his unvarying good temper and his *savoir-faire* in dealing with elements of a very discordant nature (Redgrave). The need for such a trained staff can hardly be overemphasized in view of the dynamic role which the State is playing in the life of a citizen. The various welfare schemes as discussed above, make provision for the appointment of trained staff in charge of their administration e.g. the Five Year Labour Programme of the Government of India contains provisions for expansion of the Factory Inspectorate, Conciliation and Adjudication machinery, appointment of Labour Welfare Commissioner, Welfare Officer, Lady Welfare Workers for welfare

* (J. S. Clarke 'In Social Security' by Robson).

† (Ibid)

‡ (Ibid)

work in coal mines. The Labour welfare schemes organised by the Provinces also require a specially trained staff. e.g. in Bombay full-time Welfare Superintendents, Welfare Organisers, Nursery School Teachers etc. are appointed for managing the welfare centres. In other industrial countries also steps are being taken to increase the number of trained personnel for the various social services provided by the State, as it has been found through experience that persons having no back-ground or knowledge of the work undertaken, when appointed to these agencies do more harm than good.

Trade Unions.—Trade Unions in most of the industrial countries of the West play a very vital role in providing various welfare services—educational and recreative—for the workers. This function of 'mutual insurance' is a source of stability, strength and unity in their organization. In fact much of the modern social legislation is the result of the early work done in the field by the Unions. Sir Arther Pugh in his presidential address to the T. U. C. in 1926 observed "in the days before the State system of social insurance, compensation for accidents and organized public care of widows and orphans and aged people, it was the trade union that looked after the victims of the soul-less industrialism, it was the Union that inculcated thrift, it was the trade union which built up that magnificent system of trade and friendly benefits which protected the workers and their dependents from the worst ravages of capitalist economy". The trade unions in India have not been able to give sufficient attention to their duties in this sphere. They have developed little in the way of normal functions for day to day work. Except for the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association,

the Railwaymen's Union, the Mazdoor Sabha of Kanpur and few others, trade unions in India have been little more than strike committees. The Textile Labour Association, Ahmedabad spends 60 to 70 per cent of its income (about 40,000/-) on such welfare activities as, the day and night schools, reading rooms and libraries. A special staff of about 25 inspectors is appointed, who visit the workers' residential places and try to solve their difficulties by personal contacts. Some of the Railwaymen's Unions have organized co-operative societies and provide various types of benefits e.g. legal-aid, death and retire benefits, sickness benefits etc.

The need for trained welfare personnel for managing such activities in trade unions can not be over-emphasized.

Further with the development and progress of industrial democracy, workers control the welfare services inside the factory and co-operate with the employer, government and other agencies in determining conditions of employment, framing industrial and social legislation and formulating social and economic policies both generally and in relation to particular industries. "The trade union movement occupies a unique position in society and one which, particularly in view of the increasing tendency towards central economic planning carries a heavy burden of responsibility. (Ben Roberts. Ibid). The last Great World War has given impetus to the movement of tripartite collaboration which is an "indispensable condition of the continued existence of the democratic way of life."*

In most of the industrial countries, the methods of tripartite collaboration have been greatly expanded in their scope particularly by the provisions in the new social insurance legis-

*(I. L. O. 'War time developments in Government-Employer-Worker Collaboration').

lation for the administration of the Social Insurance Schemes by Joint Bodies, by the establishment of joint minimum wage-fixing machineries as well as by the establishment of Joint Advisory Councils (on the national level) and Production and Works Committees at the factory level. In India also the tripartite principle has been accepted as the best means of discussing and finding solutions for labour problems and a permanent machinery has been constituted for such purpose. The Standing Labour Committee and the Plenary Conference have been set up and tripartite industrial committees have been established for the important industries e.g. coal mining, cotton textile, jute, cement, leather. Statutory Provisions for the formation of Works Committees and Joint Committees have been made under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 and the B. I. R. Act, 1948.

Trained trade union workers will be of immense help in furthering the objectives of such employer-employee collaboration in industrial production.

It has also been felt necessary that the trade union movement should be organized and controlled by workers themselves. In India, workers are largely illiterate and ignorant and unless, therefore, they are specially trained for the purpose they will not be able to take to the work of union organization much less will they be able to produce leaders who will be sufficiently well-equipped to build and keep together a big union or a strong movement or to represent them in the national or international field.

The trade union welfare staff must have a clear grasp of the real needs, desires and psychology of the workers. Their zeal and sympathy for them must be mingled with the balance of judgement

and breadth of vision. They must be able to understand the constructive role of trade unions in developing harmonious and peaceful relations in industry and in raising productivity and efficiency of the economy as a whole, in order to be able to guide the movement on progressive lines. They must have courage and resourcefulness to inculcate this new outlook amongst the workers. It is also necessary that they should have a working knowledge of the technical phases of business in order that they may be able to eradicate the causes of waste and inefficiency.

Employer.—Welfare work has long since been accepted as an important obligation of the employers towards their workmen. Their motives for such work may, however, be numerous e.g. either humanitarianism, religion, securing the workers loyalty to the plant or raising their productivity. Welfare work may also be undertaken to attract better and more efficient workers to the factory or to gain stability of business. Under the pre-industrial conditions the employer and the employed were bound together by personal relationship and continuous propinquity. This bond is now weakened by the change in industrial conditions. Anyone scrutinizing industry from the scientific point of view can see many ways in which consideration of human factor can raise efficiency. First at the time of recruitment he will see workers getting a cold reception at the hands of the jobber and feeling themselves as the objects of his exploitation. The first impressions of the extortionate jobber grow in him the seed of helplessness and dishonesty. The worker struggles along with his work and often spoils the machines on which he works because there is no one to show him the right way or to give him the necessary training. He slows down and gets exhausted by excessive physical and mental fatigue. These adverse effects are more pronounced if the condi-

tions of the work—temperature, ventilation, humidity, lighting or illumination etc.—are also bad. Some workers will be jealous of their superiors, others will be worried about their old age, sickness or unemployment. Their morale or enthusiasm for work will be at a very low ebb. Mal-adjustment in the job as well as in the entire industrial environment makes the workers discontented. Absence of any welfare amenities for rest or recreation, washing or bathing after arduous work—all play their part in driving the worker into hopeless and sometimes irredeemable Psychopathic condition of mind. Moreover when his complaints are considered very lightly all these adverse conditions create a cumulative effect. Lack of any information about the industry and its products, its history or anything about the raw materials etc. make him incapable of appreciating the difficulties of the other side when pressing for the acceptance of his demands. It is for these reasons that Miss Harriet Herring asserts “there is no job about the mill that can be more strenuously pursued or more disgracefully neglected than welfare work.” Welfare Work today forms an important function of personnel management. It is based on the proposition that workers are living-souls with a personality and not mere parts of factory equipments. Their skill, strength, capacity, training and daily work are things into which their personality enters.

Welfare or Personnel Management.—Is “that part of management function which is primarily concerned with the human relationship within the organisation. Its objective is the maintenance of those relationships on a basis which, by consideration of the well-being of the individual, enables all those engaged in the undertaking to make their maximum personal contribution

to the effective working of that undertaking.” It is concerned with: 1) Employment, i.e. interviewing, selection, placement, instructions as to company rules and policy, control of transfers and promotions, reduction of absenteeism and labour turnover etc. 2) Health, safety and sanitation—organization of medical service, promotion of personal hygiene, prevention of fatigue, setting up of sanitation services, safety measures etc. 3) Education, training and research—job instruction, job analysis, time and motion studies, formulation of special incentive plans, apprenticeship training, statistics, reports, surveys etc. 4) Joint representation or consultation—setting up the Work Committees and other machinery for the systematic settlement of industrial disputes; 5) Welfare and employee services—provision for education and rest and recreation e.g. dining rooms, tea-shops, canteens supplying wholesome and fresh food; bathing and washing facilities, creches, day schools for children and night schools for adults, reading rooms and libraries, co-operative societies, cheap grain and cloth shops, medical help, first aid appliances, housing, open air and indoor games etc.

The aim of the Personnel Management is the formulation of a clear personnel policy to secure a healthy interest of the workers in their work. Sound welfare management is the outcome of the community spirit—it is a co-operative effort of the workers and the employers to secure prosperity and peace for both. The employees are regarded “partners in social service of production and not merely as a source of energy.”*

Welfare work which forms an integral part of the personnel management of the policy is not today a result of the paternalistic benevolence of the employer but only a co-operative device

* (Kelly ‘Welfare work in Industry’).

based on a fellowship of purpose and interests. It is, therefore, organized and controlled with the help of the Works Committee which exercise important social, economic, financial and technical functions. They formulate the methods of developing co-operation between the employers and the employees and in some countries even administer the social services in the undertaking. Experience has shown that the treatment of employees as intelligent and responsible force in the factory has evoked a corresponding spirit of interest and co-operation from them. Workers come to appreciate the problems of management—the firm's production programmes and plans. In Great Britain Joint Committees even undertake the unpleasant duty of disciplining the workers and have occasionally even recommended their dismissal. The Personnel Management policy identifies the worker—however junior and whether permanent or casual—with the firm. This is the best way by which all industrial waste, inefficiency and conflict can be eliminated. The workers are given full information regarding the company policy and practice which in turn will stimulate their interest and the desire to find out more about the firm. The information may be disseminated by organization of conferences, club meetings or individual messages, by publication of magazines or papers, booklets, bulletins, circular letters or memoranda written in simple language understandable to workers. Simple progress charts showing plant progress and the actual delays with the reasons therefor, may also be displayed in a prominent place in the factory. Whatever the means adopted, it has been found that men can be made to feel that their employer welcomes their suggestions and treats their opinions with respect and appreciation. (As for example, the Westinghouse Electric Corporation in U. S. A. actually adopted

5,000 suggestions out of a total of 11,404 suggestions made by their employees to improve production processes and distributed awards totalling 57,209 dollars and gave a reward of 5,085 dollars to an employee for his explanation regarding the improvements in the method of manufacturing mica sheets by machine.)

It is, however, not enough to formulate a policy and its aims and objectives. It is also necessary to see that it is actually applied in the factory at all levels in the best possible manner. It is necessary to set up a special organization for the purpose of translating the policy into practice. This can be done by setting up a special organization manned by a trained personnel to supervise all the policies governing the management-employee relations.

In India, the value of Personnel Management has not yet been fully realised. Only a few employers have made some provision for welfare work in their establishments. Some mills in the cotton textile industry and the Jute Mill Association provide recreation facilities of various sorts (e.g.—provision of wrestling pits and gymnasia, sports club for such games as football, cricket, volleyball, reading rooms and libraries, theatrical performances, excursions); facilities for education of the workers and their children (e.g.—adult education classes, primary and technical schools etc.); medical facilities by way of setting up dispensaries under the charge of qualified doctors. Other welfare facilities like organization of provident fund and gratuity schemes, old age and retirement pensions etc. have also been instituted by some of the advanced units of the industry. All these welfare measures, however, have not yielded the best results as they hardly conform to any standard or principles nor are they organised on scientific lines under the

supervision of well-trained personnel, e.g. the canteens provided in many factories are "little more than private contractors' tea-stalls. Where foodstuffs are provided, they are neither cheap nor good in quality while the environments are anything but clean, sanitary or attractive....No wonder then that workers prefer to bring their own snack with them for mid-day consumption".*

Similarly the provision of creches (though now compulsory under the law) in many cases leaves much to be desired. The observations of the Labour Investigation Committee in this respect are worth considering. "Generally speaking the creche is one of the neglected corners of the factory and if an 'ayah' or nurse is in attendance she seldom pays sufficient attention to the requirements of the children left there.....The atmosphere is seldom very clean and standard of sanitation seldom very high. If cradles are provided there are not enough of them, with the result that children are allowed to lie on the floor, generally in dirty clothes, and crying for want of attendance." Similarly in case of the entertainment facilities, it has been experienced that workers do not take any interest in the same. The main reason for this is that they have not been organized with due regards to the psychology and aptitude of workers. In India it is not possible for workers to make use of such modern games as tennis, ping-pong, billiards etc. In the health services also, mere provision of dispensaries has been found to be insufficient, for a vigorous health education drive is also necessary to secure a living interest and to enlist the practical co-operation of the workers in those measures. The British factories in this

sphere have made a very remarkable progress. Medical and First-aid Centres providing the services of a qualified doctor, dentist and nurses, convalescent homes, facilities for recreation and education (e.g. provision of various games, organization of clubs, catering for different types of hobbies like horticulture, radio, photography, handicrafts etc. schools for workers and their children), Training-Within-Industry schemes, pension and provident fund plans have been provided. The control of all such schemes rests with the workers while the management provide the necessary material e.g. playing fields, club room for indoor recreation, swimming baths, gymnasiums. The actual administration rests with the Works Councils or separate committee elected for the purpose. An expert body—the personnel department—which is well conversant with the psychology, needs, tastes, and desires of workers and which is sympathetic in its attitude, helps the Works Councils in their activities.

The rise of a new profession.—Trained welfare workers or labour or personnel officers or industrial relations officers or labour liaison officers or employment managers (by whatever name they are called) have assumed a vital role in the sphere of scientific management of the employer-employee relations and occupy a very high position in a factory. There is an increasing tendency for firms to employ specialists in personnel relations to whom is entrusted the responsibility of supervising all policies governing management-employee relations and to accord them a position and status of dignity and responsibility as that enjoyed by other executive charged with the task of production, distribution and finance. They are given a high rank on parity with other major executives, which carries prestige and authority in the factory.

*(L. I. Committee's Report).

The Royal Commission on Labour in India favoured the idea of employing trained labour officers for the purpose of establishing a healthy contact between employers and workers as also with the view to eliminating the exploitation of workers by jobbers or contractors entrusted with the task of recruiting them. Since the recommendation of the Royal Commission, the institution of labour officer has come to stay, especially in the cotton textile and in the larger units of several other industries like cement, matches, chemicals, papers, jute etc. In the seasonal, unregulated and small scale factories, plantations and mining no such special officers are appointed though recently the Government of India has taken steps for the appointment of Labour Welfare Commissioner, Inspectors and Welfare Officers as well as trained Coal Mines Lady Welfare Workers. Labour Officers, however, have not yet been given any place of dignity in the factory and are not able to exercise any independence of judgement and responsibility. Mr. A. S. Banawalikar in his report "A study of industrial dissatisfaction" (in the textile mills in Indore City) shows that Labour Officers in their present condition will be of no use either to command confidence of workers or to improve employer-employee relations. "A labour officer who has to represent interest of the workers and interpret their feelings, hopes, fears, and ambitions to the management should not be so obsessed with his own position of inferiority and comparative poverty that he should be prevented from having his say on a footing of equality with other officers." The Royal Commission Report recommended that he should be subordinate to no one except the General Manager of the Factory. "His position should enable him to see that the workers' case is adequately presented

and he can act as their advocate when he is convinced that remedial measures are required. The Indian Factories Act of 1948 under Section 49 makes the appointment of Welfare Officers compulsory in every factory with 500 workers or more—thus giving an official recognition and status to their functions in industry. The Government of U. P. under the draft rules issued under the said section, have provided that Welfare Officers shall be subordinate to the Labour Commissioner, and shall be selected from the list of candidates drawn up by him, and removable only with his permission. Though this provision will not accord the Welfare Officers the position they should have, it may afford them some independence of action and authority.

In U. K., a Factories' (Medical and Welfare Services) Order made by the Ministry for Labour and National Service enables Inspectors of Factories to direct that officers should be appointed to supervise welfare activities in the factory. This power has been used very sparingly but still the employers are convinced about the usefulness of the services of a trained personnel in organizing such activities. In 1944 there were 6,000 such officers in British factories while in 1939 there were only 1,500. In 1945 a section with the Inspectorate—'Personnel Management Advisors'—has been established to give advice in the development and expansion of better methods of personnel management.

Qualities and Qualifications.—"Integrity, Personality, energy, the gift of understanding individual and linguistic facilities are the main qualities required"* in a Personnel Officer.

Unusual ability and understanding, skill and ingenuity are necessary for one who has to manage men—a task more delicate and

*(The Royal Commission).

difficult than that of managing machines and materials. He should have a sympathetic appreciation of workers' point of view, and also a clear understanding of the employers' policy. He must have courage and independence of mind, strong personality, firmness and determination with practical wisdom, tact and commonsense, a sense of reality combined with high ideals. He should also have an infinite patience and aim at gradual improvements, for, "the mere fact of the entry of a welfare worker into a factory does not result in a transformation in personal habits, in behaviour, in work, or in attitude of mind either one side or the other. It does not draw immediately employee and employer together".*

He must have a breadth of vision, an adventurous spirit as well as the necessary ability to support his schemes and innovations on sound principles. He should be a good judge of men and should understand the psychology of workers with whom he has to work. He must be gifted with an amiable nature, a sense of good humour, tolerance and ability of leadership.

Functions.—The functions of a Personnel Officer are mainly advisory in nature—that of enabling the employer (the Manager) and other executives in the factory to adopt adequate measures for mobilizing the interest, goodwill and co-operation of the human factor in Industry. He is a specialist in human relations who is familiar with the problems and policies of Management as well as the attitude, needs and desires of the workers. He is entrusted with the task of supervising and improving labour standards in different departments of a factory, by educating factory managers, foremen and other executives in the methods of managing men. He looks to the long-run interest

both of the employers and of the workers—on the one hand advises the employers against being led away by the prospects of immediate gain and on the other hand enlists workers' spontaneous co-operation and interest in the job. He interprets the workers' point of view to the employer and to other executives in the factory and inculcates upon them the advantages of team-spirit in production-work and the contribution which good-will of the operatives can make in raising efficiency in the factory. Industrial relations are put on a new basis, all avoidable wastes are eliminated; the scope for fears, distrusts, dislikes, suspicions and prejudices is very much reduced. In this way even the problem of industrial discipline is made much easier of solution, for the aim of industrial discipline is to develop character and efficiency. A trained Personnel Officer impresses on employers the utter uselessness and injustice of the old-fashioned disciplinary tactics in which force, pains and penalties, threats of dismissals, forfeitures of various rights and privileges, monetary fines, suspensions without pay, were relied upon to make petty regulations effective and to enforce industrial discipline. A Personnel Officer skilled in the art of handling grievances can act as a channel between the workers and management and by his very presence in the factory can create a spirit of comradeship—an "*esprit de firm*" or "we feeling", a sense of unity and co-operation. The various welfare services organized by him afford to the industrial workers a means of self-expression, and "an exercise in self-government". The Personnel Officer, therefore, has to reconcile apparently divergent interests. Being usually a paid employee he has to convince his employer of the concrete economic benefits of his schemes. He has also to seek co-operation

* (E. T. Kelly "Welfare Work in Industry").

of other executives in the factory. Besides he has to win the confidence of the rank and file, by convincing them that he is not merely a 'company man' but is really interested in guarding the physical, moral, economic and social well-being of workers.

In order to succeed in his efforts he must be conversant with the problems of the industry—its history, its financial structure as well as its competitive position. He should know the nature of the product, its demand and supply position as well as its relation to other closely complementary and substitute products. Special technical qualifications are not essential for appointment though a general knowledge of the processes is necessary.*

With a view to formulating sound principles of procedure and developing a technique for proper recruitment, selection, and placement of employees, he must have full knowledge of as well as a systematic contact with, the sources of labour supply and the labour market. For the purpose of achieving the most effective adjustment of the worker to his job he should be able to assess the individual "in terms of his capacities, aptitude and other qualifications which the job calls for" by studying the previous history of the worker by the application of psychological tests as well as by personal contacts. Analysis of the job requirements, its specifications and standardizations on proper lines are essential for fitting men to their jobs and *vice versa*. It is also the duty of the Personnel Officer, with the help of other executives and technicians in the factory and with the co-operation of the Works Committee to develop adequate opportunity and facilities for education and training of workers and their children, in order to secure an adequate supply of well-trained workers. A

Personnel Officer must also be able to construct well-defined and scientifically determined schemes of transfers, promotions and dismissals in order to stabilise the working force. This will necessitate formulation of a general code of rules for conduct and discipline in factory. A Personnel Officer has also to draw up plans for the promotion of health, comfort, and safety of the employees in the factory. Provision of a satisfactory, congenial and comfortable working environment, a well-organized and efficient medical service, and adequate welfare amenities are essential in order to create harmony and goodwill in the industry. Above all a good Personnel Officer must devise measures for stimulating interests of the workers in the job and the enterprise through joint conferences between the management and the workers representatives, formation of Works Committees and other joint bodies like Inspection, Accident Investigation, Publicity and Educational, and Safety Committees.

A Personnel Officer, therefore, has to be thoroughly familiar with the basic psychology of the workers—their needs and desires. He should know the conditions of their living as well as the general environment of the locality in which they live—the state of public health, the extent of vice, crime, intemperance in the locality, the moral and spiritual forces and educational institutions therein. He should be aware of the composition of the working class in the area—the various racial, communal and industrial groups. He must be conversant with their habits, customs and modes of behaviour, the composition of their families, and their family budgets. A Personnel Officer can understand his workers well, only when he is well acquainted with all these factors, which ultimately determine the attitude of

worker to the various industrial problems. He should learn to look behind the final events in any particular situations, to the antecedent causes thereof, in order to find out their fundamental conditioning factors. Mr. Robert Hyde in his booklet "Human Factor in Industry" gives the following example in this respect. "A Welfare Worker newly appointed to an ironwork discovered that whenever trouble arose in the concern its origin could be traced to the foundry. . . . The workers were always grumbling; they were of a poor type, and made little response to any suggestion for improving the tone of the works. He pursued his enquiries in the foundry itself and discovered that the conditions prevailing there were lower than in any other department. The roof leaked, light was bad, the gutters overflowed with the result that in rainy weather puddles of water stood about the floors. Tools were wet and cold and rusty and in the semi-darkness were hard to find. The bitter draughts rendered the foundry anything but a pleasant place to work in. The men had put up with it for many years, and although they little knew it, the conditions had embittered their outlook. Representations were made to directors and shortly afterwards the defects were remedied. Within six months the tone of the foundry improved. The human factor had been considered."

Knowledge of the history, policies, aims, aspirations, structures and strength of the Trade Union movement in the country as well as other countries is also necessary for a competent Personnel Officer. He must be familiar with the social and economical forces in the country as well as its moral, spiritual and cultural background. In order to be able to understand and evaluate the measures adopted by the State for impro-

ving labour standards, he should know the prevailing political trends in the country as well as the dominant political groups and their policies. He should have a clear idea about the relationship of labour to the State and the community as a whole. He should also have an adequate knowledge of the provisions of various enactments governing labour conditions and employer-employee relations.

Training Programme.—On the suitability of the officer very largely depends the success of various welfare services whether provided by the State, the Trade Unions and other welfare agencies or by the employers. Trained Officers alone can crystallize enthusiasm and sympathy for the working class into scientifically planned programmes and can achieve the best results with the knowledge and skill gathered during the period of their training. "There is a good and bad way of doing things, an effective and an ineffective method of work. Technical training is training in those methods of achievement, which experience has shown to be more effective." A special technique of doing the work is necessary to enable the officers to approach the problem scientifically, to analyse it, and to work towards its accomplishments "with confidence, a sureness of touch, a lack of self-consciousness, an economy of effort and a definite expectation of a probable result."* Trained personnel has the necessary knowledge, understanding, enthusiasm, skill and a constructive imagination which are necessary in the successful execution of the welfare schemes. As for example in the case of the Social Service Staff, it is necessary that they should have a clear grasp of the principles underlying social administration and should have a practical knowledge of the social resources of the

*(Lee "Social Work as Cause & Function").

community as well as a fund of information regarding social processes. Similarly Personnel Officers in factories can discharge their various functions, (as detailed above) only when they are equipped with the necessary knowledge and skill by a special training programme e.g. an untrained personnel officer though he may succeed in running a canteen satisfactorily upto a point, will not be able to make it 'a channel for the expression of corporate life of the factory' and the centre of the social and recreational life of the firm. Many well-intentioned schemes have failed to achieve the desired results merely because they were not put in charge of trained hands.

The aim of such a training programme is mainly to inculcate practical skills, to teach the necessary theoretical knowledge and to develop the prerequisite of efficient work *viz.* an intelligent interest in and enthusiasm for doing good for the maladjusted individuals. This can be done only if the officers have a sound knowledge of the psychology of the individual in society as well as the social psychology of the working group.

It is clear from the above discussion that no one stereotype curriculum of studies can be laid down for all types of welfare personnel for all times. Though the general education and preliminary training course for social work in industry may be the same for all, their specialized training programme will have to be modified in conformity with the different kinds of services which they will have to handle after their training, e.g. a worker in State Social Services will need a more comprehensive training in social work as he has to operate in a wider field. A trade union welfare worker will have to lay more emphasis in his studies on the subject of trade unionism—the relation of trade unions with the

management, the State and the Society. A Personnel Officer in the factory will be more immediately concerned with the human problems in industry and the relationship of the management with the same. He will need a greater understanding of the purpose of business and the functions and responsibilities of the management in a free competitive economy.

Within each category also there will have to be some degree of specialization but this can be left to other supplementary schemes of Inservice or apprenticeship training which can train the students for specific jobs e.g. for factory inspection, conciliation and arbitration work, for social security services, housing management etc. As for example, in Great Britain, newly recruited factory inspectors are given 2 weeks' intensive (theoretical and practical) training by the Factory Department. The Society of Housing Management and large housing authorities like London County Council run similar training courses in housing management.

The training for welfare personnel may be in the form of the long-term course as well as the short-term course in order to meet the urgent needs for trained personnel for welfare services. The long-term course may be of two years' duration and may comprise: (1) a general training course which may be of one year's duration: (2) specialized training course in conformity with the nature of the specific field of work which the student would undertake after his training. This may be also of one year's duration.

The short-term course may run for one year for the benefit only of such persons who are already employed either in State Social Services, in Trade Unions or in factories as Welfare Officers. The short-term course may also comprise: (1) a general training course of three months duration; and (2)

a specialized course on the lines indicated above of nine months.

The specialized course should commence after the completion of the general training course and should provide for intensive research facilities in the field of specialization.

The general or the preliminary training course (which will be common to all types of workers) should be devised very carefully so as to equip the students with the basic knowledge of the theory and practice of social work in industry.

Such a training course may be set up on the following lines and should include the following steps.

(1) *Initial selection.*—It is essential that the students admitted to the course should have a university degree in one of the social sciences. Exceptions, however, may be made in the case of those who have a long experience in the field and have a special aptitude for welfare work. They should not usually be under 20 years of age for "experience of life is a necessary part of the foundations when building one's philosophy of life."*

The interviewing panel should have before it the record of candidate's work which he has already done as well as his educational progress. It will specially look for such intangible qualities as powers of leadership, self-reliance, initiative, organizing ability, wider outlook and above all a strong character which is indeed "the fundamental basis in the make up of a good welfare worker". These intangible qualities can be developed by training only if they are initially present.

(2) *Outlines of the Syllabus.*—(i) *Theoretical discussions, lectures, seminars and conferences:* The lectures should be delivered by an experienced staff. Experts in the field of industry, Trade Union Organization and other specialists may also be invited for this purpose.

The syllabus should be so framed that it should have the closest possible bearing on the industrial, economic, and social background of the country with which the students are concerned. The most important subjects which may form part of the syllabus are :—(A) Industrial and social psychology, (B) Economics (main theoretical principles and also as applied to the facts, conditions and circumstances in the country), (C) Industrial History and Organization, (D) Industrial Relations and Labour Legislation, (E) Social Statistics and Social Insurance, (F) Public Administration, (G) Labour Movement in national and international aspects, (H) Social Thought, Ethics and Ideals, (I) Machinery of Government and Political Institutions, (J) Social Work in Industry (inside and outside factory),

(ii) *Field work:* should also form a more important aspect of the course. With the co-operation of employers, trade unions and other agencies (voluntary or under the State) field work under an expert guidance can enable the students to acquire a professional discipline. It can stimulate those qualities and characteristics in the students from which can come intellectual vigour and broad human sympathy. Practical training may be arranged in different industrial establishments at important industrial centres, with various trade unions and the employers' organizations and other social welfare agencies working in the field. Field work is not confined merely to visits of observation to these places but includes sound education in which supervision in the field is as carefully planned and applied as theoretical instruction. Trainees should acquire clear first-hand knowledge of the living and the working conditions in the country (especially in the locality) by personal observation. In order that the students may have a better

*(E. T. Kelly).

grasp over their work a few of them may be selected and deputed to the foreign countries for their practical training. It is a very encouraging sign that the U.N.O. has taken up this matter and is providing fellowships to the selected students of different countries to go abroad for such training.

(iii) *The case method of instruction:* In which the students with the help and under the guidance of their Field Supervisor discuss what action should be taken or what ought to happen in some hypothetical but quite probable combination of circumstances. Experience shows that when lectures, discussions and seminars are arranged, cases arise quite naturally in the discussion. The discussion of the solutions to these hypothetical cases can throw a very interesting light on the real problems that occur in the industrial life of a country. Such discussions can be more informative and useful if they are preceded by some preparation and study of the problem to be discussed at the meeting. The field-work of the students can be a very useful source from which individual cases can be selected for discussion. The case method can link up the knowledge of home conditions of workers with their working environments. "Personnel departments are finding that visits to the homes must supplement interviews on the job". "The Personnel Director in an industrial establishment. . . is a case worker within the certain sphere as surely as the social case worker. His progress-card for employees is not unlike

the face card of the Social Welfare Organization; his job analysis, production studies, promotion charts, educational programmes, welfare and recreational projects supply him with specialized data upon the individual and his environment. He knows how to develop and control his employees through environment; his tactics in meeting personnel problems within the industry are based upon knowledge of these facts".

The case work method is not only useful for personnel management in the factory but also for acquiring a clear picture of the social resources of the community.

India today needs, in very large numbers, trained social workers, who can successfully guard against the wastes and conflicts and sacrifices of human resources, which may arise out of her plans for greater industrialization. Our educational institutions and their programmes will have to be reoriented so that they may have a closer relationship with the social and economic needs of the country. The State also will be judged "not only by the excellence of a paper plan, not only by administrative competence, not only by lavish benefits, but also by the spirit of the staff, its spokesmen".†

Selection and training of competent people in various fields of social work in industry is absolutely necessary in order to have a stable and comfortable progress towards a better living.

* (S. H. Walker 'Social work').

† (Joan Clarke).

OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

MRS. KAMALA NIMBKAR

It is a tragic circumstance that in India physiological and psychological disturbances lead to disabilities in individuals which are neither properly diagnosed nor treated. Holding that a well planned occupational programme will help to heal the various types of patients Mrs. Nimbkar suggests the lines of treatment for these disabilities. Incidentally she emphasizes the introduction of occupational therapy in our medical institutions in the light of its success in the West.

Mrs. Kamala Nimbkar who is trained in England and the U. S. A. is the Director of the Occupational Therapy Training School, Bombay.

In different periods of history certain ideas are discovered to take hold of the imagination of the people or an invention change the course of their lives. In medicine and its allied professions one can observe the same thing. The discovery of the circulation of the blood was revolutionary, the use of anaesthetics gave a tremendous fillip to the development of new techniques in surgery. Occupational Therapy was not a new idea when it first won recognition as a part of medical treatment during the First World War; but it was not until the Second World War which kindled concepts of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation that it received full recognition as an essential treatment.

In the West the study of the history of these ideas rarely carries one beyond Egypt and Greece, while what was happening in countries like India and China in this regard presents a blank page. Consequently, everything written on the history of Occupational Therapy begins by telling how the Egyptians used music and games, which are types of both passive and active occupations to aid in the recovery of mental patients. The Israelite David played the harp, when a young man, to calm the soul of King Saul (1025 B.C.). Then the Greeks used games for both physical and mental improvement and recognised occupations as having value both in education and as treatment. Galen wrote in A.D. 172: "Employment is nature's best physician and is essential to human happiness".

During the same period and even before, the ancient Hindus recognised the value of activity and occupation, particularly for purposes of concentration, and developed a whole series of "Vratas" as, "treatment" for various mental ills. Among the Vratas we find such "prescriptions" as an assignment to a woman to pick out a thousand grains of rice which had no cracked corners, or to go into the forest and pick a hundred white datura flowers (white being both rarer and more poisonous, the task was more difficult and the forests were also rid of a dangerous weed) to lay at the feet of Shiva, or to wrap a finely spun thread around the peepul tree.

Unfortunately as we became Westernized in our ways and thoughts, there was less and less use of old ways which must have met the needs of the people, and we have now reached a condition of having neither the old therapies nor the most advanced new ones. We have had a lot of talk about keeping people busy, of cottage industries and off-season occupations for the farmer; and during the Second World War and after we have had "occupations" in our military hospitals administered by the Red Cross after a meager six weeks training. The value of what the Red Cross did and does is not to be depreciated. However, it was not and is not Occupational Therapy in the accepted scientific sense.

What is Occupational Therapy :— Occupational Therapy is any activity, mental or physical, *prescribed* by a physician for its remedial value. It is recognized by the

medical profession as a valuable adjunct in contributing to and hastening recovery. The prescription must be carried out by a trained therapist who is trained in craft skills, recreation and related subjects, has a knowledge of anatomy and the neurological, orthopedic of psychiatric implications of the diagnosis on the patient's chart, and has a background of theory and practice in the application of the activities to the particular needs of each individual patient. She or he works for and with the doctor, the physiotherapist, medical social worker, and the nursing staff toward the cure and/or rehabilitation of the patient. Occupational therapy is an important part of the concept of treating a patient as a whole.

The scope of Occupational Therapy:—The problems of a patient may be physiologic or psychologic in nature or both. Any deviation from the normal of a patient's relation to his environment is part of the problem. Occupational therapy must offer a programme of activity which is an aid to the patient to correct for himself the deficient factors.

The following types of problems most frequently encountered will give an idea of how occupational therapy works. It is a rare patient whose problem is so simple as to be confined to one of the list, although usually one can be considered the major problem with one or more subsidiary problems.

A. *Physiologic Disturbances.*—1. *Specific muscle weakness* as might be caused by disease or injury to the neuromuscular mechanism. This weakness can be overcome by repeated use of the muscles involved in purposeful activity. In the beginning the patient may have been given passive, then active exercise by the physiotherapist but it is only when the patient is himself using the muscles with increasing range of motion and power that he is really on the

road to fullest recovery. The more he is interested in the activity, whether it be making a rug on a frame, knotting a belt or playing a game of checkers with specially constructed men, the more rapid will be the recovery. Interest will carry a weak muscle further than any amount of direct instruction. Good principles of exercise, posture and care to avoid over-fatigue must be followed, particularly in the beginning.

2. *In-co-ordinated muscular function* as produced by a lesion or injury of the higher motor centres. Considerable benefit can be had by controlled use of the involved muscles, step by step on a basis of carefully graded activity. Where there has been permanent impairment, other muscles can be trained to compensate for the weak or unusable muscle. Here care must be taken to allow compensation only when the damaged nerves or muscles cannot be made to function again. Emotional tension is often a most important factor and consequently the approach to the patient and the choice of activity which may generate maximum interest and forgetfulness of self in doing it, are extremely important.

3. *Limited motion of a joint* due to some change in the joint structure by intra-articular deposits, adhesions or by shortened tendons or other types of interference. Usually repeated use of the joint will bring improvement. Arthritis would come into this group and is one type of illness in which activity may be required through pain. Usually the occupational therapist does not work with a patient when there is pain but in the case of arthritis this may be necessary. However, frequent rests are allowed. With arthritic patients care is also taken to teach the patient how to hold a limb, so that when it is stiff, the maximum use may be made of it and movement most easily started.

4. *Loss of a part by amputation.* Although it is usually the physiotherapist who works to develop power in the remaining part, teaches exercises for strengthening and toughening the stump area and gives practice in the use of prosthetic appliances, the occupational therapist also often helps in such work by bringing to bear his knowledge of games and activities which can be undertaken in the first stages of the patient's long pull towards complete independence.

5. *Cardiac limitations.* A carefully graded programme of activity working toward normal living plus practice in doing things with the minimum of effort can do much for a cardiac patient. It gives the patient confidence and helps toward relaxation and a happier outlook.

6. *Physiologic rest.* In treatment for tuberculosis, arthritis and other chronic diseases the relaxation which gives the required rest can often be induced by a satisfying interest which requires only the lightest of activity. A Polish patient with whom I was working in a Tuberculosis Sanatorium in America, was made happy by being given a pair of scissors, a number of old magazines, a scrap book and paste so that he could cut out pictures of things, the names of which he wished to learn. After a few weeks he was also allowed to sit up for a short time and practice writing. The knowledge combined with the hope that when he recovered he would be a "better American" and fit into the community more fully, was a powerful factor in his recovery.

7. *General weakness* following disease or prolonged treatment requiring long convalescence and inactivity. Here again a carefully graded programme of activity is most useful. The grading is in the time spent on the activity and the amount of movement involved.

8. *Healing processes* are often hastened by increasing the flow of blood to the part as a result of controlled activity.

9. *Calcium retention.* More recent studies in America show that activity plays an important part in the retention of calcium in the body and in the avoidance of the formation of renal stones. Where a major part of the body must be immobilized, more activity can be given to other parts, to better the prognosis for quick healing. This is particularly true for cases of tuberculosis of the bone.

B. Psychologic Disturbances.—1. *Failure to adjust satisfactorily to environment* whether in the hospital or in daily life. By tactfully guiding the development of suitable skills the occupational therapist may help a permanently handicapped person to live an adequate life. The patient can learn to substitute other accomplishments for those he can no longer enjoy. The handicap may be an obvious one as the loss of a limb, or a hidden one as a permanently damaged heart.

2. *Distortion of emotional relationships* among members of a family. Relief is often found through an active programme which not only gives attention to the more important values of life but also guidance to the patient in becoming aware of the problems.

3. *Fear and anxiety.* Fear is a destructive factor which hinders progress of recuperation whether from tuberculosis or some other ailment. Instruction in new skills, development of fresh interests and encouragement to face the problems can often work wonders for the patient.

4. *Emotional tension* arising from discomfort, pain or an awkward body position. One of my present patients whose torso is immobilized in a plaster cast has

become a different young man since he has learned to crochet with coloured twine. He made me a small bag and then asked for three colours to make a larger one. He is busy all day, smiling and happy at having not only acquired a skill but in creating something.

5. *Neurotic tendencies.* So often the neurotic patient has become such from a sense of inferiority, of never accomplishing anything and of being a mediocre sort of person. A satisfying interest and a new skill which gives pride in the product will often do much to solve the problem.

6. *Disorientation and confusion.* Here a simple, logical work programme will give a sense of security and normality. Repetition of a simple process such as weaving may make a real difference in the chances of recovery of such a patient.

7. *Daydreaming or fanciful thinking (schizophrenia)* may be replaced by an active interest. The more the patient is kept in touch with reality, the better his chances for recovery.

8. *Lack of confidence or loss of ego.* In this type of patient only those activities should be chosen as will end in successful achievement. One patient, a huge man who had been a truck driver, was "afraid" to undertake any activity. One day he asked to do spool knitting. This he did well and with the help of carefully chosen colours produced a really charming mat. Then he admitted to the therapist that he had been afraid to do anything else but had done spool knitting as a child. From spool knitting, once he had produced a satisfying article, it was a short step to simple weaving and eventually he was making rugs with most complicated patterns.

9. *Hyperactive or manic actions.* The excess energy of the manic patient can be

used up in metal hammering or similar activities. Real fatigue will bring better sleep and gradually the patient will be content with less active work.

These are not all the possible classifications of patients but do give an idea of the part occupational therapy can play in treatment of the various aspects of patient-problems.

From the above it will be readily understood that the occupational therapist has a place in many types of institutions, each of them requiring a varied programme of activity. For instance, in a general hospital almost every type of patient will be found, even a mental patient. The activities must be varied, involving small objects, which can be made in bed and they must be short-time projects. The curative workshop usually deals with physical injuries and treats the patient after they have been discharged from hospital. In Philadelphia, the Curative Workshop attached to my training school, received, in addition to patients from neighbouring hospitals and private doctors, all the firemen and policemen of the city who had suffered some physical injury. These city employees were not only given activities to strengthen the injured part but were helped to develop work tolerance. The firemen practiced climbing a ladder with increasingly heavy bags of sand until they were quite fit to return to duty. A Sheltered Workshop is really an employment programme where a cardiac, arrested tuberculosis case, an orthopedic or an epileptic can work according to his capacity under medical supervision. Payment in such workshops is on a piece basis and the worker may even be trained in a new occupation so as to become a full time worker. Institutions for the blind often come under this heading. Other institutions employing occupational thera-

pists are mental hospitals, private and state, tuberculosis hospitals and sanatoria, children's hospitals and schools for crippled children, army and navy hospitals, and veterans, hospitals. Here, in India, if we do not have all these types of institutions now, we will have them eventually; at present our country needs occupational therapists for many hospitals, tuberculosis sanatoria, mental institutions, schools for the blind, work with lepers and beggars, and in many other allied institutions.

Training in Occupational Therapy.—The courses prescribed in a standard (American or English) training school in Occupational Therapy may be roughly divided into three groups—Medical subjects, Activities, and Theory or the application of the activity to the patient and the doctor's prescription. Let it be stated now that the doctor does not say, "Give this patient knitting and that one rug making". Rather the doctor says, "Exercise this muscle and not that one, do not allow movement above the wrist, or this patient must be kept in touch with reality and that one is depressed and requires stimulation." The doctor gives a general directive with specific precautions such as "cardiac", "diabetic", "excitable", "suicidal" and so on and the occupational therapist must have sufficient training, both theoretical and practical, to be able to plan the treatment and to work intelligently with the patient.

Under Medical Subjects we find courses in Anatomy, and Physiology, Pathology, Bacteriology, Neurology, Orthopedics, Mental Deficiency, Epilepsy, Psychology, Psychiatry, Kinesiology, Physical Exercise and Corrective Exercises, Crutch Walking and General Medical and Surgical Conditions. The last items cover such conditions as cardiac, rheumatic fever, pulmonary tuberculosis, cerebral palsy, burns, skin

diseases, social hygiene, geriatrics (science of problems of old age), arthritis, visual disabilities, hearing disabilities, pediatrics, poliomyelitis, leprosy and so on.

The activities not only include crafts such as weaving, drawing, design, metalwork, clay modelling, basketry, woodwork, carving, book binding, needlecrafts, knotting, rug making and braiding but also recreational activities such as games, music appreciation, gardening, library use, and marionettes or puppets. The Theory courses must include hospital organization and administration, organization of an occupational therapy department, teaching methods, social sciences, and the particular application of therapy to special conditions such as orthopedic, mental and tuberculosis patients offer.

Merely to teach the above subjects, no matter how well, is not enough. Before a student receives a diploma in occupational therapy and obtains the right to be registered, he or she must put in a period of at least nine months in actual practice in hospitals under trained and registered occupational therapists. This nine months period is usually divided into four months in mental hospitals (two may be private and two state institutions), two months in a general hospital, two months in special orthopedic work, and one or more in tuberculosis, pediatric or other special field.

Today there are twenty-four schools of occupational therapy in the United States, five in England, two in Canada and two in Australia. There are occupational therapists working in South Africa, New Zealand, Czechoslovakia, Singapore and Switzerland. We hope to begin training in Bombay by the middle of 1950. There are plans for an International Occupational Therapy Association to hold its first meeting in Sweden in 1951. So at last Occupational

Therapy is coming into its own as a recognised, essential profession in the treatment of patients.

Occupational Therapists and Medical Social Workers.—In a hospital where there are both a social service department and an occupational therapy department they are of mutual assistance. The occupational therapists report to the social worker facts learnt about the patient which will help in planning his future, such as skills and interests. In return, it is a convenience and help to the occupational therapist to have some information from the social worker about the patient's background, home, and work. Conferences to discuss mutual patients can be most helpful to both. In many hospitals it is usual for the two departments to hold weekly conferences where patients are considered.

An increased understanding comes of psychosomatic (mind and body) conditions when the occupational therapist and the medical social worker co-operate with the doctor in understanding the social and emotional components of the physical ailment. This has been found true particularly in cases of stomach ulcer, asthma and

certain types of allergies.

In the rehabilitation of orthopedic cases the co-operation of the two groups has been found most helpful. The case worker is able to interpret the importance of occupational therapy to the patient and his family, while a knowledge of the patient's social problems helps the occupational therapist to understand his psychologic reactions and to adapt treatment to meet his special needs. Where the patient is attending a curative workshop, the medical social worker may act as a liaison officer between the therapist and the doctor, especially where the patients may be coming from a number of hospitals. Or it may be a great help to the doctor to have information from her as to which social agencies his patient may be referred. The more co-operation there is among those in a position to help him, the better the chances of a fully cured and rehabilitated patient.

In conclusion, we now need in India not only "learning by doing" but "curing by doing", or occupational therapy to rehabilitate a larger number of those who must otherwise become an increasing burden to themselves and the country.

WHAT CO-OPERATION CAN DO FOR INDIAN LABOUR?

A. H. RAZVI

In India Co-operative Movement has acquired an agrarian bias. Its useful role in elevating the material conditions and spiritual level of Industrial workers is not sufficiently realised by the various champions of labour.

The writer tries, in this article, to point out how Co-operation can prove beneficial to the Industrial workers. After analysing the various economic and cultural problems which confront Labour, he outlines a programme of Co-operatives which could be immediately effectuated.

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Co-operation and Labour.—The aftermath of Industrial Revolution and the general misery of the working classes on the termination of the Napoleonic wars gave rise to Trade Unionism and Co-operative Movement in England. Robert Owen (1771-1858), the great labour leader of his time, is said to be the founder of Trade Unionism as well as the father of Co-operation. Owen pointed out that the permanent cause of distress was to be found in the competition of human labour with machinery and that the only effective remedy was the united action of men and the subordination of machinery. He made experiments in establishing self-sufficient colonies of workers and organized them in small communities of about 1,200 persons each. Though Owen failed in his early experiments, yet he inspired the people for collective effort and set their mind upon the track of co-operation.

The present consumers' movement dates back to the founding of Rochdale Equitable Pioneers' Society in 1844. It was a humble beginning made by a 28 flannel weavers of Rochdale, which became a popular movement, of the working classes, in a short time. The principles introduced by the pioneers were sound and aimed at abolition of profit and establishment of equality of status.

The practice of charging current local prices and then returning profits to con-

sumers on the basis of their purchases is the way in which the ordinary profit making mechanism can be used for the abolition of profit. The device of allowing one vote to a member, irrespective of the number of shares held by him, fulfils this aim. Supplying articles of genuine quality of full weight or measure, giving equal rights to women in the affairs of the Society and setting apart a portion of the profits for educational purposes, reinforced the fundamental goals of co-operation.

The early Co-operative Stores in England were, like the trade unions, organized by industrial workers as a protest against the evils of factory system. They received wages below the subsistence level for long hours of work and often the wages had to be spent in the truck shops kept by the employers. Therefore, they organised themselves as wage-earners in trade unions and as wage spenders in Co-operative Stores. Co-operative Stores were started with the object of not only freeing the workers from the evils of truck, but also of gaining in the process, enough capital to build up industries wherein the members could be employed. Though this ideal of self-employment failed in practice, yet it gave birth to a number of Co-operative workshops and industrial societies in England and other countries. The consumers began to undertake the production of different articles for use and, thus, the

producers' co-operative movement came into existence.

Subsequent developments of co-operation in different countries have made it a full-fledged and scientific movement promoting economic interests of the people. Within a short span of time, all kinds of economic activity, be it production, distribution, exchange or consumption, came to be organized on co-operative basis in some country of the world or other.

Though Co-operative movement emerged to meet economic evils, recently, it is considered a valuable method to combat non-economic ills also. Its scope includes activities which may not be directly economic, for example, the spread of education, medical care, sanitation, social reform and others. Co-operative health societies are widely being used in Yugoslavia, Holland, Canada and the U. S. A. for providing medical facilities to the people. Co-operative anti-malarial societies in Bengal and Co-operative educational societies in the Punjab have also been formed to mitigate the problems of ill-health and illiteracy. A characteristic of co-operation is that it expands infinitely. People who have learned to meet one need co-operatively use their experience to supply other needs also.

Co-operative movement in England has always been linked up with trade unions and the labour party. According to Dr. William King, it was, once, a subject entirely for the working classes. The rich had nothing to do with it. Though things have greatly changed during the past one century, yet "the movement", write Mr. and Mrs. Webb, "is still overwhelmingly working class in character." The Belgian Co-operative Movement, unique in many of its phases, also arose as did the British Movement from the working classes.

Co-operative movement in Italy has also been linked up with the workers who everywhere formed themselves into co-operative groups or labour contracting societies. It has widely been used by the working classes for the solution of their specific problems all over the world, be it in the form of credit societies, consumers' stores, health organizations or labour societies. Dr. Barou holds that "it has been widely successful because it has always worked in the interest of wage-earners, farmers and small craftsmen who together constitute a large majority of total population". The movement provides a unique opportunity to men of small means to pool their resources for self-improvements by self-help and mutual assistance. The essence of co-operation is in "each for all and all for each".

Industrial Labour Problems where Co-operation can work.—Co-operative movement in India has mostly been applied to the agricultural problems and has predominantly been credit in character. But the economic condition of the working classes in this country is also far too wretched as compared with any other industrially advanced country of the world and, therefore, should be improved on co-operative basis.

Indebtedness.—The workers in large textile and other mills have no doubt a steadier and higher income than the unskilled and unorganised workers, but it is in most cases too low to meet the cost of living in urban areas. The condition of unskilled and semi-skilled labour is far too wretched and their earnings too small for even the bare necessities of life. Most of the workers are indebted to Sahukars, Baniyas and Pathans who charge exorbitant rates of interest. The Royal Commission of Labour, 1931, reported that the indebtedness of industrial workers is greatly responsible for

their low standard of living. In most of the industrial centres the proportion of labour families or individuals in debt is two-third of the whole. The debt according to the Commission is the principal obstacle to efficiency as it destroys incentive to effort. Inquiries conducted by the Department of Industries, Madras, into the family budgets of workers in Madras city, in 1935, also showed that about 90% of them were in debt and the average amount spent on repayment of debts each month amounted to 13% of their average income. The Rege Committee, in the course of their investigations, found, that 63% of the workers in Bombay city were in debt and that the amount of indebtedness varies from Rs. 10/- to Rs. 700/-. The average debt per family works out to be Rs. 129/-. Workers' Co-operative Credit Societies have been organised in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad and a few more industrial areas, but their number did not exceed 400 in 1944 whereas the number of regulated factories alone is 13,209. Co-operation alone can save the workers from the clutches of money-lenders and safeguard their interests.

High Cost of living.—The second important problem is the rising prices of articles and the high cost of living of the workers. Cost-price grain shops and stores have been established during the war and post-war period by a few factories but an overwhelming majority of workers do not have these facilities and have to buy their requirements in the open market. It is estimated that middlemen and shop-keepers usually sell articles at a price which is higher by 15 to 30% than the cost price. Whenever purchases are made on credit either the prices of the same articles are increased or articles of inferior quality are sold. Many of the casual labourers cannot get goods on credit; they can buy only in small doses each day or twice or thrice

a week. Such buying involves an additional loss of 10-25%, compared with buying in bulk, once a month or a fortnight. The retailer takes a heavier toll for the slower turnover, unlike the co-operative store. A few Co-operative Stores have been organized for workers in railways, mines and factories. The prominent among them are the South Indian Railway Co-operative Stores, the B. B. & C. I. Railway Stores, Kothagudam Collieries Consumers' Store (Hyderabad), the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills Store, the Madura Mill Store, and the Mill Workers' Stores, in Coimbatore. A number of Middle Class Co-operative Stores exist all over the Country, which insist on payment of cash for all purchases and supply of goods of superior quality at higher prices which are beyond the means of workers. Workers' Co-operative Stores supplying goods in bulk once a month or fortnight at cost price and also providing credit facilities can alone solve the problem.

Provision of credit facilities and the supply of day-to-day requirements at reasonable prices to the workers are the two important economic problems to be solved Co-operatively. But there are certain other important problems which, though not directly economic, effect the entire life of the worker and therefore cannot be overlooked.

Ill-Health.—One such problem is of workers' health. The Indian workers suffer from innumerable diseases which make them unfit and inefficient for normal life and work. They are mostly under-nourished or mal-nourished, work for long hours under nerve-racking and unhealthy conditions and live in filth and squalor. When they fall ill, medical facilities are not available to them, in most of the cases. It not only prolongs the disease but also makes them quite unfit for work. The employers are, in general, not prepared to provide medical

facilities for the workers and their families as they think that it is the responsibility of the state, and that they have nothing to do with it. While the State on the other hand has not yet realized the seriousness of the problem. The only solution of this problem is to provide medical facilities to workers on co-operative basis till the State adopts some comprehensive scheme. The Workers' Co-operative Society can also help the workers in the struggle against disease by means of vaccination and other preventive measures and can also provide medical facilities to them in times of need.

Illiteracy.—Another fundamental problem which vitally affects worker is their education. The Whitely Commission has pointed out that "nearly the whole mass of industrial labour in India is illiterate, a state of affairs which is unknown in any other country of industrial importance." Of all the handicaps to Indian labour, illiteracy is the greatest. It is the most formidable obstacle to progress. Illiterate workers cannot form strong trade unions and produce leaders to run them effectively. Nor can they play their part in building a strong nation. Both the State and the labour organisations have so far failed to eradicate illiteracy rampant among workers. Co-operation offers the best solution of this problem. Co-operative Societies can set apart a portion of their profits for the education of their members and, through periodical press, broadcasts, lectures, classes, tours and even actual schools, they can place at the disposal of their members necessary information and knowledge so valuable for the proper exercise of their profession. Co-operative Societies in the field of rural reconstruction in India have contributed considerably in spreading education among the villagers through rallies, films, social gatherings, talks, night schools, adult education classes and actual schools. They have also introduced

methods of better living among them. Co-operative Societies for Industrial workers, can also adopt the same methods for mitigating the problem of illiteracy.

Role of Workers' Co-operative Societies and Workers' Problems.—The problems discussed in the preceding pages can be solved on co-operative basis in two different ways. One is by organizing separate Society for a single purpose while the other is by forming a general or multi-purpose society serving many different purposes. The single-purpose societies will not be suitable for India, since a larger amount of funds and larger personnel are required to run them. It is, therefore, suggested that multi-purpose societies known as the Workers' Co-operative Societies should be organized among the workers in plantations, mines, transport and factories with the following objects:

- (a) To promote thrift by encouraging the workers to save a small fraction of their income every month;
- (b) To grant loans to the workers at a low rate of interest in times of need;
- (c) To supply day-to-day requirements of the workers at low prices;
- (d) To safeguard the health of the workers; and
- (e) To promote their education.

The problem of finance will be the most difficult one for such societies. The members are not in a position to provide capital for running them. Therefore, employers, municipalities and the Government will have to give necessary financial assistance.

The funds of such Society should be raised in the following manner:

1. A small entrance fee;
2. Share capital: Shares should be of a small value and should be payable in instalments;
3. Saving deposits of members;

4. Donations and grants; and

5. Outside loans.

The employers are generally in the most favourable position to assist workers' co-operatives. Their whole-hearted support will, not only make these co-operatives strong, but will also contribute towards better industrial relations. They should assist the Societies:

- (a) By contributing towards their expenses;
- (b) By giving loans free of interest;
- (c) By recovering the amount advanced to workers in instalments from their wages;
- (d) By buying goods required by the Society direct from the producing centres at wholesale or cost price, and
- (e) By supplementing the staff necessary for their management.

The Provincial Governments will have to play an important part in the development of Workers' Co-operative Societies. A committee consisting of representatives of workers and employers should be constituted in each province with a responsible Government official as the Chairman. It should plan appropriate schemes and evolve detailed methods of working them. The governments should sanction an additional administrative and supervisory staff exclusively meant for the organization and supervision of Workers' Societies. A vigorous propaganda campaign should be launched by provincial Governments backed by the employers and trade union leaders to inculcate a genuine spirit of co-operation among the workers. The Governments will have to bear the initial expenses of a scheme of Workers' Co-operatives and provide necessary financial aid in the early stages of their functioning. They

should play the role of a guide, a philosopher and a friend to the workers.

All Workers' Societies thus formed should be federated into a central body known as the Workers' Co-operative organization for the purpose of co-ordination of activities, control and finance. The central organization shall receive donations and grants from public institutions, municipalities and Government and distribute it among the primary Societies according to their requirements. It shall also secure outside loans for primary Societies at a reasonable rate of interest.

Co-operative Movement and Trade Unions:—Trade Unions should extend their whole-hearted co-operation and support to workers' co-operative societies because the success of co-operation among the workers alone will give them strength and organisational stability. The necessity for the trade unions to develop activities in this direction has been stressed by the Whitely Commission in the following words:

"Most unions are at present hampered by having too limited a scope and too few activities. There is a disposition to regard a union as a mere agency for securing benefits from employers, and to overlook the valuable work that can be done in the way of mutual help. A widening of the sphere of activity is most desirable both because much is left undone that trade unions can do and because it will strengthen the movement to find, and even to create activities in which the members can participate. The selection of fresh activities must depend on local circumstances and will vary from province to province and from industry to industry. An extension of the co-operative movement by the agency of trade unions seems to offer a genuine opportunity in some centres. The provision of co-operative credit and the maintenance of Co-operative Stores, if properly managed, would advance the economic position of the members."

The trade union movements in other countries, notably in the U. S. A., have already recognised the importance of the co-operative movement in their efforts to improve the conditions of workers and, indirectly, to consolidate their position on a firmer basis. This is proved by the notes published from time to time by the International Labour Office in its Journal "Co-operative Information" which is devoted to the review of the progress of the co-operative movement all over the world. A note appearing in the "Co-operative Information", 1937, reproduces the following message sent by Mr. William Green, President of the American Federation of Labour, to the American Congress of the Co-operative League held in October, 1936.

"There is a real danger in the United States, where powerful interests are constantly seeking to keep wages at the lowest possible level, that co-operative movement may become merely the means of low-paid workers to exist on a mere pittance. Wage standards must be buttressed by strong trade union organization if co-operators are to have income to spend in their stores.

"Our convention made a basic point when it stated that the trade union and the co-operative movement are 'twin remedies'. They must go hand in hand. Living Standards must be raised both by wage increases and by the savings of consumers' co-operation. The co-operative movement can do much to build up its alliance with labour by insisting that the goods sold in co-operatives are manufactured under fair labour standards, by demanding the union label and by encouraging employees of co-operatives to organize in unions.

"The American Federation of Labour is ready to work with any constructive movement for consumers' co-operation. We realize what co-operation can mean to wage-earners

and are anxious to see a strong and lasting movement built up in this country."

Another instance of the recognition by the trade union movement of the importance to the workers of the co-operative movement, also reported in "Co-operative Information", is provided by the prominence given to the latter movement in the agenda of the 56th Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labour which was held in Florida. The Executive Committee of the Federation presented to the convention a report on consumers' co-operative societies in which, after discussing the importance of the consumers' co-operative movement in the United States, it states:

"Labour welcomes the growth of this movement. We are well aware of the benefit it can bring to workers, not only by returning to them profits of the middleman and preventing many of the wastes in our system of distribution which add to the price paid by the worker, but also because consumer control of distribution will mean a guarantee of quality in the goods sold. In looking to the future growth of the movement, we feel that closer co-operation between organized labour and consumers' co-operative movement is essential." The two foundation stones of the co-operative movement, the report points out, are sound business management and education of the members. As regards the extent of the benefits accruing to the members, the report states:

"In addition to retail stores, the credit union is a form of co-operative which has brought immense benefits to its members. There are today about 5,200 credit unions in the United States with 10,00,000 members and \$ 10,00,00,000 in savings.

"The Labour Movement should work in close alliance with the movement for the consumers' co-operatives and credit unions,

so that co-operation may be fortified by a strong labour organization and union members may be assured honest value when they spend their wages and may increase their purchasing power by eliminating waste and middlemen's profits." The International Labour Office, it should be remembered, is keenly interested in Co-operation and maintains a service, the function of which is to keep in touch with the latest developments in the co-operative movement throughout the world.

Co-operative Housing:—There are a few more problems which, though they deserve co-operative solution, cannot be handled by the workers' co-operative societies. They should individually be solved by co-operative organizations of a different nature.

One such problem is housing the workers. Next to food and clothing, the housing shortage is an urgent problem of industrial workers in India. The intolerable housing conditions in urban areas are greatly responsible for the ill-health and low efficiency of the Indian workers. Housing and health are interconnected. They both influence industrial efficiency. The unhealthy and unattractive housing conditions are also responsible for the constant mobility of labour and a number of social evils. The solution of this problem is imperative both for the workers and the Society. Housing is one of the fields in which the co-operative method functions most effectively. Co-operative housing developed in almost all European countries. It is estimated that 15% of the population of Stockholm and 50% of that of Goteborg (Sweden) live in co-operative houses. The lovely town of Freidorf (Switzerland) is owned by the Co-operative Society.

Co-operative housing is the only way to provide houses to men of limited means on ownership basis. Tenants' Co-operative

Societies or Societies based on tenant co-partnership system have widely been used by the workers in industrially advanced countries. These Societies build houses for their members in the form either of apartments or of family houses. Members pay a small entrance fee and have to subscribe for one or more shares, for which they pay by instalments proportionate to their means. The Societies' working capital is supplemented by the proceeds of mortgages, the issue of bonds, members' saving deposits and outside loans. The capital thus acquired is used to build houses. The member tenants, pay a rent, which may also include amortization of the purchase price in cases where the tenant is to become the owner of the property. If the housing society has a surplus at the end of the year, it is generally distributed in proportion to the rent paid.

Co-operative housing societies have been started in some of the urban areas of our country both on individual ownership and tenant co-partnership basis. The Government of Bombay is specially encouraging co-operative housing with the object of removing the acute housing shortage in industrial areas. But very few Societies have been organized in the country which are meant exclusively for the workers. It is, therefore, suggested that co-operative housing societies based on tenant co-partnership system should first be organised for workers belonging to a higher income group in textile and other organized factories and gradually be extended to other houseless workers. They should generously be supported by the employers and the Government by means of grants, subsidies and loans.

Another very important problem specially confronting the unskilled, semi-skilled and unorganized labour is to secure steady

employment. In most of our primary industries such as plantations, mines, transport and others, labour is hired and sent away at the will of the employers. The terms of employment are always in favour of the employers and detrimental to the interests of the workers. Recruitment in these industries mostly takes place through jobbers, Sardars, contractors and a number of intermediaries who take undue advantage of the lack of organization and ignorance of labour.

Co-operative Labour Contracting Societies.—Co-operative labour contracting societies offer the only solution of the problem at present. These societies which represent a group of workers directly contact the employers and assume full and collective responsibility for the execution of a definite task in exchange for a lump sum as remuneration, which is then distributed among the members according to rules agreed upon as fair by themselves. They also supply workers on wage-basis, from among their members and safeguard their interest. Labour contracting societies have come into existence in Italy, Austria, Hungary, Lithuania, Australia and New Zealand. They are working in such widely different branches of production as coal mining, public works, agricultural works and quarries.

The organization of Labour Contracting Societies among the unorganized and illiterate labourers in our country will be a tremendously difficult endeavour. However, efforts should be made to organize them among the workers in plantations, mines, transport and public works. If found successful, these efforts may be extended to organize the same for the entire unorganized labour force.

Agricultural Labour: Its Problems.—The task of organizing Co-operative movement among the agrarian labourers is a far

more difficult venture than the one of organizing it among the Industrial workers. Agrarian labourers are numerically ten times larger than Industrial workers. Further they constitute an economically ruined section of the Rural population. Ruination of Agrarian Economy is throwing larger sections of Rural population into their camp.

The number of such labourers, according to P. A. Wadia and K. T. Merchant, was $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions in 1881, which increased to 21.5 in 1921 and 33 in 1931. Between 1921 to 1931, the number of labourers per 1,000 cultivators rose from 291 to 417. In 1941, their number rose according to Dr. Lorenzo to 40 millions.

This unorganized and unskilled labour force is not only unemployed over a considerable part of the year but is very poorly paid during its employment period. According to Mr. Thirumalai, the landless labour in the village he surveyed, got "only two-thirds of the income necessary for subsistence even on a low standard". Most of the landless workers are paid in kind for their services. But whatever they are getting is hardly sufficient to keep the body and soul together. According to Messrs. Nana-vati and Anjaria, the daily wages wherever paid in cash (in the pre-war days) varied from 3 to 6 annas for men, 2 to 4 annas for women and $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 annas for children.

There is regulation neither of wages nor of the working hours. In some part of India his poverty and dependence has forced the agricultural labourer to become a virtual serf. An official report describes serf labour in the following terms:

"The average agricultural labourer is not infrequently compelled in times of stress to mortgage his personal liberty. In return for a small sum of money, which he may happen to need at the moment, he agrees

to serve the man from whom he has borrowed. The money is not repaid, nor is it intended to be repaid, but the labourer remains a life-long bond slave of his creditor. For his work, he merely receives an inadequate dole of food and to all intents and purposes is in the position of a medieval slave."

The supply of landless labour is more than its demand. "It hangs about the country side, adds to the already existing inefficiency of agriculture and is a permanent obstacle to the introduction of better methods and the improvement of agriculture tools. It is this class, which driven by starvation in the cities, lowers the wages of town workers and impedes the rapid growth of trade unionism, housing improvement and civic amelioration."

Co-operative Societies for Agricultural Labourers.—The deplorable condition of agricultural labourers should immediately be improved in the interest both of agriculture and of the Indian working class. The Government should give statutory protection to them and enact and enforce strict regulations determining the hours of work and minimum wages. This will partially solve the problem. But for an all-sided improvement of this mass of human labour various co-operative methods should be used. Co-operative societies on the model of workers' co-operative societies should be organized after a careful study of consumption habits, standard of living and marketing manners of these labourers. Thus alone can the evils of the bucket shops and the extortions of rapacious money-lenders be effectively prevented. When co-operative societies will advance them loans in times of need, the evil system practised by mahajans and zamindars leading to the exploitation and debt bondage of agricultural labourers will tend to disappear.

Co-operative Farming.—Next only to the urge for higher wages and favourable conditions of work, the agricultural labourer feels intensely an urge to possess land. Provision for sufficient land to him, is not only necessary for effecting a solution of his problems but is also important for the success of the grow-more food campaign. It should also be noted that, with the introduction of modern methods of cultivation in our country, as contemplated by the Government of India, the demand for agricultural labour will decrease, and it will be necessary to settle the surplus labour on land. It is, therefore, suggested that co-operative farming societies should be established in villages wherever the landless labourers form the bulk of the local population. These societies should obtain land on tenant lease from the Government and parcel it out among the landless labourers for co-operative farming. Government should pass an Act on the model of the New Agricultural Land Law of 1945 passed in Turkey with the object of providing land to the landless class.

The following type of land can be used for the purpose:

1. All cultivable but unoccupied land;
2. Certain areas covered with forests;
3. All such lands as are uncultivable at present but which can be brought under cultivation by the means of scientific methods;
4. Land in private hands which is in excess of the requirement of the owners; and
5. Land which has not been sown, ploughed or planted for 5 years.

The functions of the Co-operative Farming Society shall be varied. The separate holdings of land of members shall be pooled together, and members sha

have to work on the land in accordance with the direction of their committees. They shall receive wages in proportion to their labour and also a dividend. The other activities of purchase and sale and of improvement of land shall be carried on jointly. The Government should provide necessary funds to all such societies and should also bear the initial expenditure incurred on the development of land, irrigation facilities, supply of cattle, agricultural implements, manures, etc.

Wherever the formation of Co-operative Farming Societies is not possible due to the non-availability of land or some other difficulties the Government should help agricultural labourers in forming labour contracting societies so that they may find work on big farms, State-owned land or in public works such as road-building, irrigation projects—canal digging, embankment and others. Co-operation alone can lift the huge mass of our agricultural labour from

its present state of degeneration and direct its energies in channels useful both for it and the country.

To sum up, co-operation can play a significant role in solving the complex problems of Indian working class, both urban and rural. It represents a new spirit, the spirit of self-reliance and mutual assistance, the spirit of group action and harmony kindling the impulse towards upward striving. It has also great potentialities in educating the labour in citizenship and political life. The use of vote, the elective system, the democratic management, self-help, self-reliance, the spirit of give and take are valuable items in the training of a citizen.

The Government and the employers have, so far, failed in discharging their duties and obligations towards the working classes. The labour leaders also have not been successful in improving their miserable lot. Will they all help the workers in helping themselves?

TRADE UNIONISM IN INDIA

IRVING BROWN

The Trade Union movement is still in its infancy in India. It needs great care and attention for healthy development. It is sad to note that even in the early stages of its development the Trade Union movement is divided into various groups owing allegiance to conflicting political doctrines. The writer narrates, in detail, the various problems facing the Labour in India, the growth of Trade Union movement in this country and its many lapses. He is very critical of the policy of Government, in India, towards labour which, he holds, is not helpful to the growth of free trade union movement.

Mr. Irving Brown, European representative of the American Federation of Labour, was a guest speaker at the National Convention of the Indian National Trade Union Congress held at Indore, in May, 1949.

To extract the Kernal of trade unionism from the welter of economic, political and social confusion that is India, today, necessitates a consideration of the backgrounds—historical and current—out of which the present government arises. Less than two years ago, India became a free and sovereign nation, climaxing a 200-year-old struggle. Much of the legacy of this past weighs upon the present, with the stamp of extreme nationalism, coloring every aspect of life in India. This age-long fight against imperialism and foreign domination has left a heritage which cannot be wiped out overnight. Suspicion of foreigners, antagonism to the white man's world, intense racial sensitivity characterize much of the nationalist atmosphere of India and contribute to present-day political ideas and programmes.

The Congress Party, which, today, has the responsibility of government, was the medium of this great historical national liberation movement. What was once a broad based national front, embracing all elements of Indian society, in a common struggle against a common enemy, must now rule and govern. The crusade, to rid the country of the foreign foe, is over and the unity of purpose, which held this vast conglomeration together, is gone. This Congress Party must now engage in activities and ask from the population what was only recently taboo—increased production; military preparations and mobilization; dis-

couragement of strikes and unrest; moderation in respect to nationalization and other economic measures; evolutionary elimination of landlordism rather than at one full swoop; and the use of repressive measures against rebel activities, especially against communism and related terrorist movements who are conspiring to overthrow the present government. What was once condemned, must now be glorified; what was once glorified, must now be condemned.

Threat of Totalitarian Menace.—The totalitarian menace threatens India on all sides. Both internally and externally the advance and growth of totalitarianism hangs over the head of the Nehru government. Events in Asia are closing in fast on this new-born government as civil war grips China, Burma, Malaya, Indo-China and most of Southeast Asia. Along with internal Communist activities, India is slowly being caught up in a nutcracker squeeze with the Russian Bear holding the major prongs. A quick glance at the map will reveal that India is practically the last major area of the Far East, where resistance to Russian totalitarianism is possible, but seriously threatened. India is not only a new-born babe, but she is practically all alone in a forest of enemies.

Immediately after liberation, India was beset with a communal war between the Hindus and Moslems, which resulted not only in the loss of thousands of lives, but

in the intensification of the general disorder and confusion, which harries the new government. The partition between India and Pakistan has also resulted in a terrific refugee problem. It is estimated that 7,000,000 Hindus have been expelled from the Pakistan areas and are now attempting to live in India. These communal frictions, with their economic consequences, are contributing to the general difficulties of life in India.

The extremely low economic levels of life and real misery, which can be seen everywhere in India, although existing for hundreds of years, add acutely to the problems of the present government. Horrible economic conditions, such as I have never seen before, are fertile areas for all forms of anti-government movements, especially in view of the fact that the present government leadership itself once exploited these very self-same conditions, for their own movement and propaganda. These immediate pressing economic problems, which in the main require long-range solutions, lie at the root of the many difficulties besetting a democratic way of life in India today.

Trade Union Movement.—The development of a trade union movement, given these historical and current backgrounds, must inevitably bear the marks and traditions of general historical developments in India. The trade union movement developed mainly after World War I, due to adverse economic conditions, but was conditioned primarily by the political struggle for national liberation, the advent and world influence of the Russian Revolution, and general theories of socialism. Although there were many incidents, periods of unrest and strikes amongst the industrial workers of India going as far back as the 19th century, these movements usually petered out without leaving any

permanent trade union organization where the workers controlled and directed the unions. In other words, there was no development of self-organization upon the part of the workers themselves as occurred in the Western world and in the more advanced democratic and industrial countries.

The working class of India never advanced to the phase of self-organization due, in all probability, to the evil effects of foreign exploitation, religious caste conflicts, general illiteracy, the confusion of many languages, and the unbelievable extent of misery and poverty which has been its lot for so long. All of these factors have combined to prevent the development of a trade union movement led and controlled by the workers themselves.

The leadership of the trade unions comes from the intellectuals and professional classes, who have chosen labour organization in the same spirit as missionaries, or social welfare workers go amongst the masses to improve their lot. The missionary complex of the intellectuals who lead Indian trade unions also combines itself with an ideological approach in which political doctrines play a dominant role.

Socialism, Communism, and Gandhism are the dominant ideological tendencies of those who attempt to utilize the labour movement as an instrument for the propagation and achievement of their respective programmes.

The advent of the Russian Revolution and the persistence of the illusion of the "workers' paradise", have given great impetus and support to the politicalization of the labour movement. Marx, Lenin, and Stalin are still spectres haunting Indian labour and their writings can be seen in almost every bookshop of India.

Labour and Trade Unionism.—Labour and trade unionism have become important factors in India as industry advances. Industrialization has been growing at a fairly rapid pace in India, although still constituting a small percentage of the general economy, considering the huge size of this country and its population of over 350,000,000. The great mass of people, perhaps more than 75%, still derive their income from agriculture. It is important to note that farm labour in the main remains unorganised. Many of these labourers, becoming landless and rootless, are drifting to the already overcrowded industrial cities where employment opportunities are not to be found. This adds prematurely to the problem of industrialization since unemployed workers are not immediately absorbable.

The need for increased industrial and agricultural production thus becomes one of the decisive problems facing the Indian people and their government today. Great resentment can still be found amongst large layers of the population against what was alleged British policy of holding back industrialization in order to maintain India as a source of raw materials. As a result of the last two World Wars, however, the increase in industrial production became a pressing necessity not only for India but for the mother country as well. Even though industrial activity constitutes a small part of the national economy, INDIA has been recognised by the I.L.O. already in 1922, as one of the leading industrial nations in the world. This makes inevitable the rise and development of a national trade movement in India. What remains in doubt is whether such a development will proceed along democratic or totalitarian lines.

Arena of political struggle.—Trade unions in India have, for many years, been the

major arena of political struggle, especially heightened by the attempts of the Communists to infiltrate the unions as a means of carrying out Lenin's dictum: "Trade Unions are the schools for Communism." The All India Trade Union Congress, which had been organized right after World War I, was captured completely by the Communist Party during the second World War. This resulted from the fact that the Socialists and Congress Party leaders were in jail, because of their anti-war position, while the Communists, who supported the war, were given aid and comfort, by the British authorities, who regarded the Communists as allies, in the war against Germany and Japan. It is interesting to note that one of the major reasons for Communist popularity in post-war Europe, namely their pro-war positions, resulted in the very opposite in India, where support of the war was met with disapproval, of the majority of the Indian masses.

It should also be pointed out that there existed during the war another trade union federation, the Indian Federation of Labour, which although supporting the war was anti-Communist. The leaders of this organization were primarily the followers of M. N. Roy, former leader of the Indian Communist movement and at one time an important figure in the Communist International.

When the war came to a close, and the Congress Party leaders were released from jail, in 1946, they found that the AITUC had become purely a political instrument in the hands of the Communist Party. Although remaining in the AITUC for a while, they finally came to the conclusion that nothing could be achieved or changed in what had become a completely Stalinist organization. In 1947, the Congress Party leaders decided to quit the AITUC and form their own trade union movement which

is the "Indian National Trade Union Congress".

This split was soon followed by the action of the Socialist Party who already in 1947 had decided to leave the Congress Party to which it was affiliated since national liberation had been achieved and basic differences existed over policies and programme for the new Indian government. The Socialists also realizing that the AITUC was no longer a free trade union movement in the sense of being independent of political parties and specifically in view of the nature of Stalinite totalitarianism decided to instruct its followers to leave the organization. In the words of the general secretary of the Socialist Party, the "post-war split in the AITUC" was caused "by Communist methods".

He went on to say that "it is a pity that the trade union movement should be so split. But when political policies diverge so greatly and unscrupulous means are used to exploit labour for political ends, a split becomes inescapable. Had the Congress not attempted, in the name of applying Gandhian principles to the labour movement, to drag labour behind the government, the non-Communist forces in the trade union movement might at least have stood together. But the sectarian and authoritarian methods of the INTUC have left no choice to these forces but to stand outside. It appears to me inevitable that they should come together in another national organization of labour." And so in 1948 disagreeing with both the Communist and Congress parties, the Socialists created their own national trade union federation, the "Hind Mazdoor Sabha".

But no sooner had the Socialists created their own trade union organization, when the "Revolutionary Socialists" and "Revolutionary Communist" party leaders decided

that the Hind Mazdoor Sabha was committing the same errors, that the latter had accused the INTUC of doing, namely, subordinating the trade union movement to political party purposes. Whereupon there was created a fourth trade union, "United Trade Union Federation", which is lead by Mrinal Kanti Bose, a former general secretary of the AITUC, who appears to be a frontman for the aforementioned revolutionary political sects who really control the organization.

India, today, can boast four national trade union federations. According to the claims of these respective organizations their membership figures are as follows: INTUC 1,200,000, Hind Mazdoor Sabha over 600,000, and United Trade Union Federation over 300,000. The AITUC at one time claimed a membership of approximately 900,000 but it is generally agreed that they have declined to a membership of about 300,000. Most of AITUC leadership is either in prison, underground or in exile. Thus, the total membership of the Indian trade unions is slightly over 2,000,000 in a country of 350,000,000 people. It is estimated that the total working population is about 100,000,000 including industrial and agricultural production. The number actually engaged in industrial production is approximately 5,000,000.

It is already clear by now that the trade unions of India reflect primarily the political conflicts and tendencies of the parties. Perhaps as a result of this great emphasis upon political objectives and goals, the reasons can be found for the great underdevelopment of trade union organization, and can perhaps also explain the backward nature of its structure and organization.

There are many trade union centres in the various cities of India, but it is rare to find a national federation of workers,

either of the same craft or industry. There are national trade union federations for the railways, textile, and perhaps one or two other industries but, by and large, federations of workers by industry or craft is lacking. In the various cities, one can find industrial unions working together on a city-wide basis, but, as yet, the concept of a national federation has not been put into general practise, although most of these city-wide unions are affiliated to some national trade union centre, such as INTUC or Hind Mazdoor Sabha.

Most of the unions organized do not have permanent officers or secretaries to handle the daily work of the organization. One finds many intellectuals acting as officers for twenty, thirty, or forty different unions in one city without pay. This means that his or her source of income will be from some other work, or as representative of a political party. Trade union dues are so low that most unions are unable to finance their affairs, or maintain permanent officers. Workers pay between 1 and 2 cents, a month, for dues, making it impossible to finance an independent organization and making it dependent upon outside assistance, such as politicians and intellectuals.

Lack of collective Bargaining.—There is still a real lack of collective bargaining, in India, in spite of the fact that trade unionism has been developing for many years. Although I spent several weeks, visiting major industrial areas and trade union centres, I was only able to discover the existence of one signed collective bargaining agreement. This lack of emphasis upon the practical aspects of trade unionism is due, primarily to the great emphasis on political objectives and to the resistance of the employers, as well as the backward development of the working

class. There is no doubt that, in the last several years, there has developed a great interest in a trade union movement concentrating on the economic needs of workers as embodied in a system of collective bargaining.

The rise of trade union consciousness amongst the workers is something which inevitably comes as the industrialization process expands. Amongst the more skilled workers, there can already be seen the rising tide of a movement for real trade unionism, based upon collective bargaining and the defense of the workers' economic interests, as against reducing trade unions to mere appendages of a political party or government.

Perhaps the greatest exponent of this tendency and need is N. M. Joshi, the former general secretary of the AITUC, who quit the latter organization after becoming thoroughly disgusted with its political domination. He is the greatest advocate of a united trade union movement, divorced from political and governmental control. It is my own opinion that unity or some understanding between the INTUC and the Hind Mazdoor Sabha is a pre-requisite to the creation of a strong and large free trade union movement.

Social welfare activity.—As a result of the type of trade union organization and leadership in India, as well as the economic situation, there has developed a great emphasis on what might be termed social welfare activity.

Due to the low economic levels and the undeveloped system of collective bargaining, most trade union activity seems to be concentrated on improving the social aspects of the workers' life. Many factories have begun to install creches to enable women workers to have their children cared for, fed, and in some cases, educated. Clinics

have been expanded in the establishments of various companies, which permit workers to be examined, and in some cases to be given medical treatment. Housing has also become such a pressing problem in the overcrowded cities of India that some employers, either under the pressure of local unions or due to their own desire, have engaged in housing projects for their employees. Perhaps, the outstanding example of this can be found in the Bata Shoe Works, which is located just outside of Calcutta.

In many cases, housing and social welfare have been undertaken in order to improve the workers' ability to produce. But these social welfare developments, so far, have only touched the surface of the problem, and, in many cases, have turned the unions away from the development of real trade union relationships with employers. It is, however, a dilemma for most people in India who are faced by what appears to be an almost insurmountable problem of misery.

The need of housing and other essential economic requirements, for the workers, drive most people into attempting to secure results, without consideration of the development of a sound trade union movement. The danger here lies in the fact, that the unions may become too much a part of employer-dominated and controlled schemes. This tendency to go to the employer for the improvement of social conditions, in the community, tends to blunt the trade union movement as an independent organization. These welfare schemes on the part of private employers are now being matched by a governmental policy of paternalism.

Government intervention.—The government through the Congress Party has intervened, most drastically, in the trade union situation of India. There is no doubt,

that the INTUC is regarded as an arm of the government, by the Congress Party, to support and carry out its aims and policies. This does not mean that the INTUC is to be regarded as completely crystallized government labour front in a totalitarian system. This would be not only untrue, but would fail to relate the problem of trade unionism to the general situation, which India faces as a democracy. The infiltration of the trade unions, by the Communist Party, in order to utilize these instruments as a weapon, to either paralyze or destroy the present government, constitutes the major cause for the intervention, upon the part of the government, in trade union affairs.

Within the INTUC itself there are many differences of opinion to indicate, that this movement can become a completely free and independent trade union, while still supporting the government, as a democratic state. International ties with other trade unions can play an important role in accentuating the development, towards real trade union organization and leadership. It would be a fundamental error to regard the INTUC, as merely a solid reactionary mass or as solely, an agent of government. There can be no doubt that the INTUC supports the government, but it is also true that many of the organizations in the INTUC are free to criticize and develop along their own lines of organization. The extent to which the free trade union world can develop relationships with and assist in the organization of the Indian workers will determine, in great measure, whether the INTUC will become completely free and independent, or merely sink back into a form of government labour front.

Industrial relations.—Perhaps, the greatest evil of the government is in the field of industrial relations. Excessive powers have

been concentrated in the hands of the national and provincial labour ministers, relative to trade union representation and settlement of labour disputes.

According to present laws and regulations, the Labour minister can become a virtual one-man czar, in determining trade union representation and in the settlement of industrial disputes. This reflects the tendency, on the part of many Congress Party leaders, who are now government officials, to regard themselves as labour leaders handling trade unions affairs. They, therefore, cannot understand why there should be any objection to their intervention in labour relationships, or why there should be any suspicion of their knowing what's good for labour. These paternalistic attitudes and practices, upon the part of many government leaders, greatly reinforced by a warranted concern with the threat of communism, result in a system of labour relationships completely dominated by the government.

Furthermore, the government system of industrial arbitration is practically resulting in the weakening of trade unionism, through the virtual outlawing of strikes, and the development of what amounts to compulsory industrial arbitration. In fact, governmental handling of labour disputes has reached the point, where both employers and unions are becoming more and more discouraged from utilizing collective bargaining procedures, and resort to the government at the slightest provocation. This has also caused, most unions, to put less emphasis on trade union organization, and to rely more on governmental backing. This fully developed system of industrial arbitration is a case of putting the cart before the horse since, there is no effectively strong trade union movement to participate

in the mechanics of the industrial codes. The present governmental controls will keep unions weak, cripple those unions not in the good graces of the government representative and reduce the incentive for free collective bargaining.

Repressive measures.—The government has engaged in extreme measures of repression, against the Communist Party, in the trade union movement. This has resulted in the jailing of many Communist trade union leaders, and the flight of others to Burma and elsewhere. The measures utilized against actual attempts of Communist conspiracy, sabotage, and violence have been justified, in view, not only, of the internal threat, but of the external menace of Soviet directed Communists.

Even the Socialist Party, which is anti-government, has made it clear, that the violence of the Communist Party must be met, by proper punitive measures, in order to protect the State and the democratic processes.

Plagued by almost impossible economic and social problems, the government is certainly justified in utilizing all measures at its command, to prevent conspiratorial movements from transforming economic and industrial chaos into armed attempts, to seize political power, in order to crush democracy. However, these repressive measures against the Communists have flowed over many times to the extent of being directed against those, who are in opposition to the government, or who are engaged in organizing unions other than those of the INTUC. This indiscriminate type of repression will not hurt but help the Communists, by forcing many Democrats and Socialists into the hands of the extreme left wing.

When emergency measures are utilized, under what is known as Public Security Act, paragraph 144, to ban legitimate trade union activities and meetings, the government may drive moderate elements to support the extremists. This would be playing the game of the Communists, who wish, by their extreme violence, to crush any possibility of a centre movement, and make it an all-out fight between the right and the left. The present government of India must protect itself against real conspiracy, against those who practice violence and sabotage, but it would be committing a fatal error, if repression were to be extended to all opponents and to those trade unionists, who are attempting to build a free and independent labour movement.

Economic and Social Cesspool.—The basic challenge to Democracy, in India, is the economic and social cesspool, in which the masses live. No permanent defeat of totalitarianism is possible, as long as India's economy and standards of living remain so low, and so long as the vast gaps continue between a privileged few, at the top, and the great teeming masses below. But India is up against economic problems requiring immediate solutions, or at least amelioration, to meet the pressing needs and demands of the people. The contradiction develops, however, when it is discovered that many short-run problems require long-run answers.

Like most Asian countries, India faces the dilemma of too many people and too little food. Expansion of food production is an immediate, urgent need. An increase is possible through more energetic action upon the part of government, and through speedier land reform. To solve the entire problem, however, requires a degree of industrial expansion, in the way of tools, farm implements, irrigation and power

which is a matter of years rather than weeks or months.

Millions of people sleeping on the city streets, each night, and appalling housing conditions, put a premium on the need for new housing construction. Here again, although some alleviation is possible, even under present conditions, the housing of India's masses remains a long-range problem requiring the general advance and expansion of the industrial economy.

These depressing economic conditions are further aggravated by the low state of health, amongst the working population, which in addition to humanitarian objections, contributes to low productivity obstructing industrial progress. Workers weighing less than 100 lbs. are asked to carry workloads that most American workers are no longer asked to do because of the greater use of machines and improved industrial organization. The increased productivity and production so necessary, will not be forthcoming until newer and better machines can be introduced in many of India's factory establishments. In many plants the introduction of systems of ventilation and better plant layouts, as well as new and improved factories, will be essential if there is to be any great increase in the production system. This was especially true of textile and jute mills, which I visited, in Bombay and Calcutta.

These prevailing low economic standards—low wages, bad housing, industrial exploitation and the consequent psychological resentment amongst the industrial workers—constitute the veritable background out of which arises movements of rebellion, terrorism, sabotage and communism. Nor can the masses of India be frightened by the evils of slave labour and low standards of living, in the Russian orbit. Their life is so miserable, so low that the life of a Russian worker might appear quite good,

as contrasted to the European and American workers, whose standards are so much higher than those of the Russians.

It is this age-old heritage, arising out of hundreds of years of India's history, that plagues the present-day government and all Democrats of India, who wish to bring about social changes and greater social justice through peaceful, evolutionary methods. These factors condition the struggle now ensuing between those who preach a doctrine of totalitarianism, in which the end justifies the use of all possible means to attain that end, and those who are struggling to bring about change, through democratic methods, in which the Gandhi doctrines of non-violence and ethical morality are basic.

Employers.—It is at this point that some observations should be made about the employers in India. Much of industry has been and still remains in the hands of European employers, who, for many years, have been able to earn a high rate of profit. According to most reports and conversations with employers, there still exist pretty good opportunities in this direction. This is not to deny that, in recent years, some employers have done much to improve the conditions of workers as compared to former years. Welfare work has been expanded. Creches have been opened. Housing projects have been developed. And many other forms of employer paternalism have been instituted.

But the essential fact of the new era, in the world, has escaped the notice of a good percentage of the employers. And that is the fact, that workers are not only asking to be better treated, but that they are also demanding their right to participate, collectively, in determining what belongs to them out of the production process. Workers are not only demanding

to be given more, but are demanding a status of equality.

Most employers still remain hostile to real independent collective bargaining and the signing of agreements. I have seen case after case where Communists have developed strong organizations, not in the factories, where exploitation was at its worst, but precisely in those mills where the workers were a little better off and where improvements had been made. Of course, many Communist unions have flourished due to the unjust and deliberate robbery of workers, of their just return under various schemes of piece-work.

But over and beyond the need for economic improvement, increased income and higher standards, I came away with the impression, that the workers of India, in their own slow and peculiar way, are beginning to realize their power and importance in the economy, and are demanding their status on an equal basis with management. Today, this may be confined to small percentage of leaders, but more and more the masses are going to support such leaders, and the day is not far off when the workers themselves will take the leadership into their own hands. The employers of India and the government can only continue to ignore this at the peril of endangering India's attempt to maintain and expand a democratic system of government.

It is also becoming clearer to the present Indian government, that the resources of the country itself are insufficient to meet the ever-growing and pressing needs of the people. If time were not a factor, perhaps India could eventually work out its own salvation without outside assistance. This would entail great sacrifices which already have been intolerable upon the part of the masses.

But even more urgent are the severely critical political conditions which menace India on all sides. The race against time makes it imperative that outside economic aid be made available to speed up the process of Indian economic reconstruction, help alleviate the economic and social conditions of the masses and permit a degree of economic viability, which can offset the demagogic propaganda of those elements ready to plunge the country into civil war, in order to facilitate the advance of Russian totalitarianism. America's point no. 4 programme—the Fair Deal—takes an added importance in this area of the world where capital investment from abroad has become essential. American economic aid has become indispensable to safeguard India as the great bulwork of Democracy in Asia.

Opposition of Socialist Party.—The leading political opposition to the government is the Socialist party, led by Jayaprakash Narayan, who, next to Nehru and Patel, is the most popular political figure, in India, today. He is also the head of the Railwaymen's Federation, which indicates how closely politics and unionism go hand in hand.

Up until 1947, the Socialist Party was part and parcel of the Congress Party in the common national struggle against the British. Since the liberation in 1947, the Socialists have decided to go their own, independent way, convinced of the need for pushing, what they term, a socialist programme, as well as their great concern to avoid the development of a one party system of government. The Socialists are the largest non-governmental or non-Congress party movement, and are playing an important and leading rôle in the trade union movement, especially in the railroad industry where they are a decided majority. Recently, they have won important by-

elections, in contests against Congress Party candidates. Their opposition to the present government under the Congress Party can be summarized as follows:

1. Oppose India's remaining as a part of the British Commonwealth, which not only compromises India's independence but allies India with the Western bloc against U. S. S. R.
2. Accuses present government of going back on its promises to engage in a nationalization programme.
3. Disagrees with the relinquishing of controls and rationing while establishing a more or less free economy.
4. Attacks government for having no economic plan as well as lacking in any desire to create a planned economy.
5. Accuses present government of having sold out to the private capitalists and having instituted a one party, totalitarian system.
6. Attacks government labour policy as constituting Facism and labels the INTUC a government labor front similar to fascist practices.
7. Failure to bring about "land reform" and the elimination of "land-lordism" has resulted in a failure to increase food production.
8. Corruption in government circles is considered to have gone so far as to be compared to the situation in China.
9. Opposed the partition of India and accuses the Congress Party of having capitulated to British imperialism on this point.

The activity of the Socialists, in the field of trade unionism, is closely allied to their political work and objectives. Their

trade union policy is essentially for the purpose of developing political influence and organization amongst the workers. The Hind Mazdoor Sabha, which contains many good, young and able leaders, is, however, a direct and open arm of the Socialist Party. Its development is part and parcel of the political, electoral and anti-governmental policy of the Socialist Party.

The withdrawal of the more "revolutionary" socialists and dissident Communists, from the Hind Mazdoor Sabha on the grounds of the latter being too closely allied to and dominated by the Socialist Party, is of some bearing on this point. In addition, those leaders who were in the now dissolved Indian Federation of Labour have joined with the Socialist trade union movement in order to build a united organization. They, however, are extremely critical of the socialist political leadership as excessively interventionist, factional and sectarian in trade union affairs.

There are many informed trade unionists, in India, who, although sympathetic with the Hind Mazdoor Sabha, feel that the Socialist Party has gone so far in the direction of a political trade union, that the only difference between them and the Congress Party's INTUC is the difference between being in and out of power. On the basis of many discussions with Socialist trade union leaders, I would not discount, completely, such an appraisal.

No unity with Communists.—There is no question that the Indian Socialist Party is anti-Communist and that under the direction and leadership of J. P. Narayan no united front with the C.P. will be considered. Narayan has said, at the Socialist Party 1948 conference, that "unity with the Communist Party must be resolutely ruled out if the Socialist Party seriously believes in freedom and democratic socialism". But

although there is opposition to Communism, due mainly to their domestic experiences, opposition to the Soviet system is not very open and many illusions still persist.

The Party has taken a clear position, in its Congress, on supporting democratic methods as against dictatorship. This is especially true of J. P. Narayan, who was very outspoken on his opposition to Bolshevism and showed rare courage, in the last Congress, in attacking the doctrine that the ends do not justify the means. He said: "There can be nothing in common between our and Communist methods".

But there are still many Socialists in India who continue to differentiate between what they term "bourgeois" and "proletarian" democracy. This allegiance to doctrinal thinking combines with a deeply ingrained isolationism, growing out of the years of national resistance to British rule. It is a combination of isolationism, and nationalism solidly encased in Marxian socialist mumbo-jumbo. It is this type of thinking which one finds throughout India, when talking not only to official members of the Socialist Party, but even to Congress Party people, who have been influenced by traditional Socialist thinking.

Ideas of "classless society", "socialism", "anti-capitalism" seems to be common to all political groups—whether right or left. That is why most socialist magazines present a very ardent defense of Indian neutrality relative to the so-called "Russo-American" conflict, usually with a greater emphasis on attacking the "Anglo-American imperialistic bloc". It is to be hoped that the personality of J. P. Narayan whose influence in the Party is very great may contribute towards developing a more realistic and practical socialist approach to world problems as well as to an appreciation of Western culture and democracy.

Communist Party and labour movement.—In examining the labour movement of India, the role of the Communist Party must be given major consideration, not only because of its activities, within India, but also in countries like Burma, Malaya, and China which bear so directly on the future of India. The Communists have concentrated for many years on working, amongst the industrial and agricultural workers. They have, with their usual fanaticism, gone out to live and work amongst the most downtrodden people. Through consistent and continued infiltration and penetration of trade unions, they became a serious threat to the stability of the government. Their aim has been to create cells in every industrial and economic unit of India, so as to develop a "cadre" organization, aiming at the extension of chaos and confusion throughout India. Their task has been to create a hard core of Communists tested under fire, hardened in street fights, engaging in bomb throwing and sabotage and so embittered with the government repression, that their loyalty to Moscow and the Communist Party is unquestioned.

The Communist movement has utilized every possible situation to provoke the government, to keep the pot boiling, to disrupt the operations of the economy so as to make it impossible for the government to function. This attempt to maintain chaos and to push the government into wholesale methods of repression and imprisonment of opposition elements has as its aim the crushing of all centre or middle-of-the-way political roads.

Communism, wrapping itself in the flag of nationalism and social revolution, against foreign and domestic exploitation, is attempting to develop one single solitary issue: communism versus facism. Its whole

campaign of violence and underground activity can only be interpreted as part and parcel of Russia's overall Asian programme. Certainly a great percentage of the Indian people, who are steeped in the doctrines of Gandhi's non-violence, have been repelled by Communist strategy and tactics. But the Communists hope, not only to win through internal measures, but through an alliance with outside victorious Communist powers, in Southeast Asia, which, they feel, no Indian government can resist.

Already the leadership of the Communist Party of India, which has fled to Burma, in order to escape imprisonment, is working closely with the Communist military organization there. Furthermore, the Communist hope to so provoke the Indian government that a regime of repression and dictatorship will extend to all opponents of the present government and thus give additional allies to Communist plans for continued chaos, confusion and resistance. This is why the government of India is fully justified in regarding the Communist Party of India, as conspiracy against the democratic processes and organized in the interests of an outside national power. And this is why no respectable trade unionist—whether within or outside India—can have relations with the AITUC, which is, purely and simply, an instrument of the Communist Party. But the government of India would be ill-advised to engage in an indiscriminate campaign against legitimate trade unionists, irrespective of their opposition to or support of the present government.

How America can help.—Repression is not enough, if Democracy and free trade unionism is to live and prosper as the best guarantee against Communism in India. America can help in this job not merely with its resources but with its

greatest weapon, the free trade union movement. The warm reception I received everywhere, as a representative of the American Federation of Labour, convinced me of the great work that American trade unionists can perform in India.

Every group, outside of the Communist Party, no matter what their politics or antipathy to the white man's world of imperialism, showed great interest in American unionism. Hundreds of questions posed by workers and their leaders revealed their concern with the practical workings of trade union organization, administration, finances and structure. I was besieged everywhere, in India, by workers, who showed an enthusiasm and desire to learn. After my speech, at Indore, to the INTUC Congress, where I defended the principles of free trade unionism and attacked government controlled unions, numerous delegations crowded around me, after the sessions, to discuss trade unionism and indicate their desire to develop and maintain contracts with American labour. This was

repeated time and time again, in every city and factory I visited, where many meetings with trade unionists took place.

Indian trade unionists were all unanimous in the opinion that the A.F. of L. should maintain an office in India, and assist the trade unions in the way of literature, advice and a programme of workers' education. No matter what differences exist in the way of politics, customs, ideologies, etc. there was gratifying demonstration of unity of interest and purpose in relationship to trade unionism. Of all my many experiences, which varied from fascination to deep depression, on occasions, this welcome on the part of the Indian labour leaders will always remain with me as the most rewarding and gratifying. And aside from the personal satisfaction derived, it points the way to closer ties between America and India in terms of mutual understanding and labour solidarity, which can help to strengthen both trade union movements.

REHABILITATION OF THE TUBERCULOUS

J. B. McDougall

Rehabilitation of the Tuberculous is an essential part of the healing technique in which vast strides have been made in Western Countries while the East still lags far behind. In this article based on an address delivered before the Tuberculosis Workers' Conference held in Bombay, November, 1949, the writer makes certain basic suggestions for combating the problem.

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The key in which the theme of rehabilitation of the Tuberculous has usually been sung, has been that which tuned in with the environment of the western medical atmosphere. The rehabilitation song to which Western Europe is now accustomed cannot find a true echo here in India. In India the resources for rehabilitation of the Tuberculous, as they are available in the West, can become nothing more than a remote possibility. Nevertheless, something can be done if we can only get a broader insight into the fundamentals involved.

To my mind rehabilitation and treatment are so closely related in time, place and practice, that to separate them would be damaging to the cause and unsound in principle.

Many of the lessons of public health propounded by western workers have been accepted and put into operation successfully by countries in the Middle and Far East, but it cannot be expected that the standards in all aspects of tuberculosis control, including rehabilitation, can be raised to those prevailing in the most medically advanced countries in the course of a few years. There will always, no doubt, be variations in standards, but there is no valid reason for existing variations on fundamental principles being so wide as they are even now.

High attainments have been reached in sanatorium accommodation in countries

like Denmark, Holland, and in the United States of America and enormous strides had been made in the past twenty years in mass radiological work and particularly in rehabilitation during the years immediately following the first World War. Where financial and, in some cases, scientific knowledge lagged behind, it would be impossible to expect that there should be a duplication of these standards. With regard to rehabilitation especially it might not even be desirable for countries in the Far East to follow in detail the same pattern as has been laid down particularly in England where the problem is still far from being solved.

Rehabilitation.—The word "rehabilitation" conjures up in the minds of medical men the picture of a sanatorium with workshops attached to which patients, in a suitable stage of recovery, are sent to carry out certain tasks under close medical supervision and, of course, in hygienic surroundings.

The jobs allotted to patients vary, and those who have visited Papworth or Preston Hall in England, will recall that printing, carpentry, the manufacture of leather goods and light farming pursuits are amongst the occupations chosen for most of the patients. In addition, posts in administrative and financial offices and in engineering and maintenance sections are manned to a large extent by patients in varying stages of convalescence. At both the places mentioned, there are houses, available in the near

neighbourhood of the sanatorium for patients who are married, and here men, their wives and children remain—at Preston Hall at any rate—until there is satisfactory evidence over a period of five years at least that the chest lesion is sufficiently stable to permit of the patient entering once more into the ordinary industrial market. For single men simple hostels are provided in the grounds of the sanatorium, where the men are expected to conform to the usual routine of the sanatorium, except that they are given more liberty in leisure hours and in leave of absence to their homes. All men participating in the work of the settlement receive remuneration, but when they graduate, so to speak, to the settlement either as married or single men, they receive wages in accordance with the normal rates prevailing in the country in general.

Village Settlement Conception.—This thumb-nail sketch of rehabilitation is that which has come to be called the Village Settlement conception and was introduced in its grand form by late Sir Pendrill Varrier-Jones, at Cambridge during the first World War. Other authorities have followed the trail blazed by this great pioneer and in England today there are some six or seven centres which aim at the Village Settlement method of attack on the problem of rehabilitation.

Visitors to these settlements are rather apt to get the impression that this is the one and only form of rehabilitation available for the tuberculous patient. Many physicians who have applauded the complete scheme with its undoubted advantages, medically and socially, have returned to their native countries with the avowed determination to put such a scheme into action, only to be forced by dint of economic and financial pressure to give up all idea of emulating

what they have seen in England. The net result has been that they have done nothing at all. It may seem surprising, but it is true, that the very magnitude and relatively complex administrative mechanism of the village settlement has acted as a deterrent rather than as a stimulus to many observers from overseas. Doctors are not too eager to undertake the roles of medical and business administrator, expert clinician and, in general, to act as the permanent Mayor of a community of some two thousand people—if we include the patients, expatients, the wives and children—for such is the population to be dealt with under the Papworth or Preston Hall plan. Nor is it possible to get many men with the qualifications necessary for the successful administration of a village settlement. No training is to be had in teaching schools on such questions as tact, diplomacy and the innumerable other functions which are not essentially medical but which go so far to ensure the success of a sound scheme for rehabilitation.

It is true, of course, that the existing village settlements in England cater for only a small proportion of the tuberculous population in need of such care and attention. It was estimated some twelve years ago, that there should be at least 35,000 places in England and Wales alone for the cases who would no doubt benefit from a successful national scheme of rehabilitation. This it not to criticise in any way existing schemes, but the outstanding fact remains that, despite the progress which has been made by voluntary organizations in England and Wales, yet only one or two local authorities have had the courage to embark on a repetition of such schemes. The result has been that rehabilitation, in accordance with the village settlement ideal, has not made any real or tangible progress during the past fifteen years or so.

Other schemes for Rehabilitation:—

There are, of course, other schemes for the rehabilitation of the tuberculous, and amongst these should be mentioned the municipal workshop, in which patients, on completion of Sanatorium treatment are allowed to work, part or full-time, in workshops near their own homes. The Altro workshop in New York has for many years been the outstanding example in this field, and in London a scheme known as the Spero Workshop has met with some success. Elsewhere such schemes have been of limited value though India, have had at least one or two successful ventures in this field.

When one looks to other countries in the world, there are to be found—here and there a few schemes which merit attention. In Holland, for example, there is still functioning the excellent little factory for the making of toys in Berg-en-Bosch near Utrecht. In Switzerland, the small village at Appisberg continues in its contribution to the solution of the economic and medical problem of the few who are fortunate enough to be admitted. In Egypt there is perhaps one of the best schemes for rehabilitation to be found anywhere in the world at Marg, near Cairo, which is outstanding in its perfection of detail and principles. It has followed closely on the British pattern, but it caters for only a very small percentage of those in need.

No useful purpose would be served by describing many of the other schemes which exist in different countries in the world. For the successful rehabilitation of the tuberculous patient it is not necessary—it is not even desirable in many places—to aim at the high target set by British authorities.

*What is Rehabilitation?—*It is necessary to be clear as to what rehabilitation

really means. Surely the term signifies simply the steps taken to guide the tuberculous individual back to a state of physical capacity which will enable him to lead an independent life and be responsible, completely or partially, for his own social welfare. It is possible to dispute the accuracy of such a simple definition, but in essence, the one just given will suffice. Now, since it is obviously impossible for countries like India to embark on large and expensive schemes like some to which I have referred, it becomes imperative—not only for India but for the many countries in the world in a similar position economically and especially with regard to medical staff available—to consider to what extent it may be possible to introduce any form of rehabilitation which will serve at least the basic needs of patients. The alternative is to despair of the problem completely and regard it as beyond our powers and capabilities.

It is not useful to undertake grandiose schemes which will involve countries in a gigantic and may be doubtful experiment. What is required is a formula which will guide the patients, but which will not impose too much additional burden on either staff or financial resources.

*The Process of Rehabilitation:—*The process of rehabilitation in the tuberculous patient is likened to the process of repair and adequate functioning of a motor car which has been damaged. First, there is the "accident", that vitally important event which results from infection or, if you like, from the late results of infection. Next comes the important item of investigation of the damage, its extent and its nature—whether it is repairable or whether it is beyond all hope of restoration. Having accurately diagnosed, we then proceed to

repair the damage, and here we may rely on a whole series of techniques ranging from rest in bed to collapse therapy, either by artificial pneumothorax or in its most dramatic forms, aided it may be by chemotherapeutic administration. But when the repair job by the motor engineer has reached a stage when he believes the machine is functioning well, he does not ring up the owner and intimate that his task is complete and that the car is ready for the road. On the contrary, he makes a complete check of the results of the work he has done on the machine: he puts it on the road and sees, feels, and hears that the previously damaged parts are now functioning well, and that the car is, for all practical purposes, once more roadworthy. In other words, he has TESTED the machine thoroughly and well, and is at last in a position to hand it over to its owner with a fairly firm conviction that the job has been well done and that the car will now stand up to the wear and tear to which it is normally accustomed. True, the truthful and honest mechanic will not hesitate to inform the owner if there are still remnants of dysfunction, for it may well be that the original damage has been so severe that normality can never be restored. Nevertheless the tests have revealed this fact and the car and its owner take the road thoroughly well aware of the limitations of the machine's performance.

Now, it is just this step in medical practice with tuberculous patients which is omitted in the vast majority of cases admitted and discharged from our institutions today. We have ample facilities for assessing the extent and severity of the disease, most institutions are fitted with modern apparatus for the accurate diagnosis of tuberculosis, at least radiologically, and there is an ever-increasing appreciation of the

value of laboratory control of all doubtful X-ray shadows. Our sanatoria may not be numerous enough, but those which are to be found in most parts of the world are well equipped with modern diagnostic equipment. This applies particularly to institutions in the west of Europe and North America, but in Egypt, Italy, Greece and in many South and Central American countries the institutional standards are extremely high. And when we consider the question of repair of the damaged lung—that is treatment—we appreciate the progress that has been made, especially during the past twenty years. Collapse therapy in one of its many forms has made it possible to neutralise damaged lung tissue without undue interference with the body functions as a whole. More recently, streptomycin and its fellow travellers have played a legitimately strong role in therapeutic armamentarium, and now gives more power to heal than ever known—in properly selected cases. After six, eight, twelve months or more, we can in a large number say that the damage has been repaired at least to the highest degree possible considering its original extent. The far too usual practice is then to discharge the patient and return him to his former home and occupational environment.

Physical Status of discharged patient:—

One of our colleagues, speaking at a conference on rehabilitation in London in 1943 when physical status of the discharged patient was under consideration, said that too frequently the discharge certificate would read something like this—"This patient has been in the sanatorium twelve months. He has occupied his time in strolling round the grounds of the sanatorium, though he has been persuaded to do a little knitting from time to time. He has also made some leather bags, the sales of which have

helped to pay for his cigarettes and, finally, he plays a very good game of snooker". That may not apply to India and I hope it does not. And it may be an exaggeration of the normal practice in most institutions, but it would, I believe, be fair to say that when the time for the patient's discharge does come, there is a woeful lack of knowledge on the part of all concerned as to the stability or otherwise of the improvement which may have resulted from treatment. Testing the results of treatment is a lost art. We are guided too much by the general condition of the patient, by the change — if any — in the radiological picture, by a presumed normal temperature, perhaps sedimentation rates, and by upward changes in weight. But these changes for the better are not the best criteria for measuring the degree to which the patient has been rehabilitated. It is in the sanatorium or hospital, and often even in dispensary practice, that we can test our patients for the tasks which await them in the outside world.

Importance of Rehabilitation.—In other words, rehabilitation is an essential part of the healing technique and should be conducted during the period the patient is under medical observation. To do this does not require elaborate workshops or factories; there is no need for any large business concern with salesmen and designers. What is really needed is medical supervision of the individual during that period he is under treatment, with a view to ascertaining whether he can maintain his physical condition in spite of gradually increasing expenditure of energy in exercise of various forms. I am definitely not advocating the substitution of exercise for rest in the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis. But I am certainly asking that adequate exercise tests shall be carried out in suitable cases before they are

discharged as capable of any form of work, light or heavy. Until we have a more or less precise answer to that question, we are not in a position to say whether or not the results of our diagnosis and treatment have been satisfactory. It is, of course, recognised that in many cases we are well aware, from our general clinical knowledge, that our patient will never be able to meet the physical demands of his previous job in industry. But it is terribly important to know to what extent he can use such resources as are left to him. In other words, the car may not be able to do the previous sixty miles an hour, but it may without prejudice cover thirty miles and may maintain that pace from day to day without further mishap.

Relapse.—This, in a word, is the hard core of rehabilitation, and I would regard special workshops in or outside sanatoria, village settlements and other schemes as mere refinements and elaborations of this fundamental idea. After all, the relapse in so many of the cases discharged from sanatoria is due to the resulting imbalance between calorie intake and calorie expenditure. On departure from institutional treatment, food intake usually declines and greater expenditure in energy is always necessary if a livelihood has to be gained. Housing conditions for the vast majority of the patients are not to be compared with those which the modern sanatorium provides and, back again to the ordinary routine of life, the patient is surrounded once more by innumerable domestic worries which result in loss of sleep and even diminution of appetite, all depriving him of more and more energy, which leads gradually to what amounts to metabolic starvation. By careful assessment of his physical reserves when under treatment, we can do much to safeguard many of these relapses. No one would willingly return a patient to

industry if he knew from objective evidence that human machine was not ready for the road. Yet this is the rule rather than the exception.

I have spent some years in studying this point and I have had many patients sent to me for rehabilitation and admission to the Village Settlement at Preston Hall, who were found, during the period of preliminary treatment and assessment, to be able to withstand a full day's work over a reasonable period in that section of our industries which demanded a physical expenditure of at least 3,500 calories per day. Most of these patients had come from other institutions without any effort ever having been made to analyse their physical condition. They had merely passed the usual clinical tests. But I have also had the opposite experience—of having men sent to me for industrial rehabilitation who had open cavitory lesions, sometimes with toxic disturbance, and who had nothing more to recommend them, from the physician's point of view, than a normal temperature whilst at rest in bed and an increase in weight—the results of many months of inactivity in the confines of a sanatorium ward. It was quite enough to give such patients a degree of exercise involving only 1,500 calories per day expenditure, to show that the treatment they had previously received had been far from making them roadworthy, if I may use the analogy once more.

Occupational Therapy.—It goes without saying that patients who have passed the usual exercise tests need not be considered candidates for permanent rehabilitation schemes. I would emphasise, however, that these tests should be related, as far as possible, to the work which the patient is normally called upon to do when

he leaves the institution. For example, the clerk should be given clerical work, the factory worker some form of exercise which bears a relation to his normal calling and so on. For this reason it is advisable to have attached to the sanatorium as part of the routine treatment—and I would underline the word treatment—some variety and organization in the form of occupations. You may call this occupational therapy if you like, but the dividing line between occupational therapy and rehabilitation is thin and narrow. All successful schemes of rehabilitation had their origin in the initial establishment of well controlled occupational therapy.

These occupations need not involve large capital expenditure. Simple machinery is available for many factory jobs, and even within the sanatorium itself there are many duties which can be carried out by patients and which will bring them a sense of reality that they are being prepared for their own economic future, and besides give the medical officer much information as to the lasting benefits of treatment. My thesis, therefore, is that the estimation of the restoration of physical capacity is just as important in routine treatment as accurate diagnosis and therapy. This is rehabilitation in the true sense of the word.

What, however, is to be the technique for those cases which prove, even after accurate assessment, to be unable to return to their normal occupations? Such cases are divided into two classes—first, those which are suffering from extensive and acute disease with no hope of recovery. These cases constitute purely medical problems and may be likened to the motor car which has been permanently wrecked. It is true that the engine may turn over and keep going for a long time, so long as no load is placed on it, but for active work on the road of life these

patients are, as a result of severe pathological changes in the chest, precluded from any further active participation in the task of earning a livelihood. They are, or should be; a State liability and special provision, either at home or in hospital, should be made for them. Despite the fact that the mortality and morbidity statistics in India are far from complete, the provision which would have to be made in India for this type of case alone might well constitute unsupportable burden on the various health departments.

Need for Sheltered employment.—Next we have that large group—estimated at some 35,000 in England and Wales—for whom some kind of sheltered employment is necessary, and experience in Great Britain and elsewhere has shown that, up till now, it has not been possible to elaborate schemes which will deal successfully with more than a small percentage of this group. This I conceive to be the greatest challenge to tuberculosis physicians and administrators in all parts of the world. You can all appreciate the type of case one has in mind. One writer has referred to them as “grumblers”—not in their mental attitude but from the standpoint of their pulmonary pathology. The lesions are usually extensive as judged by radiological shadow: the sputum is either consistently positive or positive and negative from time to time. Yet the physical capacity of such patients under ordinary sanatorium conditions is not infrequently astonishing. It is this fact which encourages us to come to their assistance if we can.

I have had a number of cases which have gone on with minor relapses and prolonged periods of comparative well-being for 15 and more years, so long as they were harboured within the safe walls of the village

settlement and constantly under the eye of the medical microscope. Indeed, some of these men have earned very large sums of money in wages during this long term of invalidism. It is this group which, as one author has put it, can neither live nor die. I would consider that one of the greatest pleasures I have had has been to know that for some twenty years of professional activity it has been my duty to take care of this very group, insignificant as they may have been in total number.

The solution to this most urgent problem has not yet been found in any country in the world, not even in those where the mortality from tuberculosis is probably eight or nine times less than that which afflicts India. Nor must we sit back and wait for advances in chemotherapy to get us out of this particular pathological puzzle, for it is most unlikely that any chemotherapeutic agent will close cavities and restore healthy lung tissue in the midst of multitudinous fibrous and caseous areas in the lungs. I know of no solution which can be undertaken by one State, one organization or even by one group of enthusiastic medical or social workers. Nor is there any one practical measure which can deal with this particular problem. The logical solution is, of course, to stem the number of such cases by earlier treatment with perhaps timely collapse therapy in the vanguard of our devices. There is some evidence that this is happening in many western countries, but even if the total numbers of such cases were less than half what they are to-day, the magnitude of our task is still tremendous. I honestly believe that in our attack against this menace in our antituberculosis schemes there is need for the assistance of everybody, not merely tuberculosis physicians. The State can make some service, especially by

arranging for certain beds in sanatoria and hospitals to be set aside for the permanent and partial employment of such cases. The investment may not prove to be a good one if it is to be analysed in terms of rupees, but as a contribution to public health it will show good profits. Employers of labour in Great Britain and elsewhere, have shown much sympathy in employing many such cases even if they do not come within the present provisions of the rules laid down by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, which has confined itself hitherto to the negative cases.

Voluntary Efforts.—The efforts of tuberculosis dispensary doctors have been noteworthy in advising employers on the types of cases they may employ and in this way medicine and industry have been linked together for the common good. Again, certain voluntary organizations have gone ahead of government action and set up urban and even rural workshops for the special employment on a part-time and partially remunerative basis of similar groups of the tuberculous populations. Certain county boroughs and councils have deliberately decided to reserve a number of posts as car park attendants, office cleaners, commissionaires, chauffeurs, etc. for patients recommended by the tuberculosis dispensary physician. And lastly, there is the village settlement which I believe to be the best solution of all, though one of the most expensive and difficult to administer.

India can emulate Papworth or Preston Hall only if it is certain and sure of all the

technical and financial resources to meet the responsibilities which such a scheme involves. It is by common and widespread effort, rather than by the labours of a few, that the best results will come. An army is wanted—not only a platoon. It is of paramount importance to impress on Governments, central and provincial, and on all sections of the population, that for certain tuberculous patients relief and shelter must be found outside the circle of ordinary industry. There is, in fact, urgent need for an extension of the present methods of treatment. Active cases with minimal lesions, the frank case of exudative tuberculosis, now so readily amenable to collapse and often to chemotherapeutic treatment, and many other patients who derive permanent benefit from the routine sanatorium treatment without any special form of intervention, represent the most simple aspect of the problem. The crux of the question of rehabilitation falls back on the “bad chronic”, to use an expression familiar to surgical colleagues, in particular.

It is here merely attempted to lay down certain fundamentals and to show that, if there is a will to tackle the problem there is not only one way but many, provided there is a full and complete realization that the attack must be multilateral and cannot devolve on one group or organization. Above all, rehabilitation is an integral part of treatment, and in all deliberations it should be given at least as much attention as any other aspect, and come within the sphere of our efforts at tuberculosis control.

NEWS AND NOTES

TATA INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES NINTH CONVOCATION—DECEMBER 3RD, 1949

Report of the Director

It is with a deep sense of sorrow that I begin this Report recording the sad deaths of Sir Sorab Saklatvala and Sir Ardeshir Dalal. Both Sir Sorab and Sir Ardeshir were intimately associated with the work of the Institute since its inception. Sir Sorab rendered valuable service in furthering its programme of expansion in several directions as Chairman of the Board of Trustees and of the Governing Board of the Institute. Sir Ardeshir, a great administrator and industrialist, was a Trustee for many years and guided the Institute during its critical period with his wise counsel and sound judgement. Although they are no more with us, we shall always cherish their memory, and their spirit will ever remain with us in the work of the Institute.

Owing to certain unavoidable circumstances it was not possible to hold a formal Convocation in April last year, but the Diplomas were awarded informally to candidates who successfully completed their two year course.

Previous annual reports usually dealt with the activities and services of the year. Departing from the usual practice, I shall, in this report, give a brief description of what the Institute has actually achieved during the last thirteen significant years and what it proposes to do in the field of professional training for social work—a pioneer field where precedents are few.

The Institute is primarily engaged in imparting scientific instruction in social work to graduates of recognised universities. On the initiative of Dr. Clifford Manshardt, it was brought into existence in the year 1936 by the Trustees of the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, in response to the growing demand for trained social workers. Dr. Manshardt was appointed Director of the Institute and he continued as such till June, 1941 when he returned to the United States. Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Professor of Social Economy, then succeeded him as Director. During the early years of its life, this institution was known as the Sir Dorabji Tata Graduate School of Social Work.

The value and success of an institution may be judged from an analysis of factors providing quantitative data relating to its growth. For ten years since it was started, the period of instruction was of two years' duration and did not provide for specialisation in the different areas of social work. The revised curriculum now in force, includes specialisation courses covering a period of two years and a half. As a result, the number of courses and hours of instruction have more than tripled.

The major divisions in which students enrol at present are: Industrial Relations and Personnel Management, Family and Child Welfare, Social Work in Medical and Psychiatric Settings, Public Welfare Administration, Applied Anthropology and Tribal

Welfare, and Criminology and Correctional Administration.

From its very inception, the Institute has been pressed both by industrial concerns and Government departments dealing with labour to train personnel for this important field of work. Prior to organising the training programme, Dr. M. Vasudeva Moorthy, a member of the Faculty, was sent for specialised training and observation in the U. S. for a period of two years on a Fellowship awarded by the Cultural Division of the U. S. State Department.

Since his return to India in June, 1948, he has been in charge of this division of specialisation. In addition to Dr. Moorthy, the Institute was fortunate this year in having, by special arrangement, Dr. M. N. Rao of the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, Mr. H. W. Cable, Personnel Officer of the Firestone Tyre and Rubber Co. of India Ltd. and Mr. B. D. Chirputkar, Industrial Relations Officer of the Ford Motor Co. of India Ltd., as Honorary Visiting Lecturers in the fields of Industrial Hygiene, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations respectively. I am glad to say that our students have greatly benefited by the lectures of these specialists. (See Appendix 1.)

The foundation for specialisation courses in the field of Family and Child Welfare was first laid by Miss Mary Sweeny of the Merrill-Palmer Foundation, U. S. A., who was associated with the Faculty of the Institute as a Visiting Professor during the year 1946-47. The training programme in this field, which has now been expanded, is being conducted by Dr. Mrs. Kamala Bhoota who took her higher training at the University of Michigan. We hope to have in the not distant future additional staff with specialised training to strengthen this division.

Specialisation in medical and psychiatric social work was first organised with the aid of a specialist, Miss Lois Blakey, brought out from the United States with the co-operation of the Cultural Division of the U. S. State Department in October, 1946 for a period of 2 years. The inspiration for organising work in this field first came from the Report of the Bhole Health Survey and Development Committee who recommended the setting up of social service departments in hospitals and the necessity of having psychiatric social workers in the treatment of mental illness. Apart from planning training programmes for workers, Miss Blakey organised and supervised social service departments in three Government Hospitals in the city of Bombay. Dr. Miss G. R. Banerjee, who succeeded Miss Blakey as a member of the Faculty in June, 1948, has expanded this programme of training. After graduating from the Institute, she received advanced training for a period of two years at the University of Chicago, with the help of a Fellowship offered by the American Association of Medical Social Workers. She has also been appointed Honorary Supervisor of Medical Social Work by the Government of Bombay. (See Appendix II).

A new feature this year was the planning of lectures on Medical Information for Social Workers by eminent doctors of Bombay. The following specialists, Drs. N. Figueredo, Rustom Vakil, R. N. Cooper, Bhaskar Patel, Arthur De Sa, Socrates Noronha, J. C. Paymaster, and Mrs. Susheela Gore, participated in this programme and delivered lectures in the fields of Leprosy, Heart Conditions, Children's Diseases, Tuberculosis, Ear, Nose and Throat Diseases, Social Hygiene, Cancer and Maternity respectively. Students found these lectures not only informative but stimulating.

The field of Public Welfare Administration has been growing in importance during the past few years and we anticipate a demand for suitably qualified workers to administer public welfare programmes. To provide workers for this field, which accounts for large public expenditure on the part of both the Central and Provincial Governments, a training programme has recently been added. Dr. B. H. Mehta of the Faculty, who had opportunities of observing last year the work of Public Welfare Departments in the United States and Canada as a United Nations Social Welfare Fellow, is closely associated with this scheme.

To improve the quality of research undertaken, the Institute is now engaged in building up a Social Research Council. It consists of members of the Faculty and Research Assistants familiar with modern methods and techniques of investigation. Dr. A. M. Lorenzo, formerly of the Lucknow University, was appointed in June, 1948 as Reader in Applied Economics and Social Research. Last April he was awarded a United Nations Fellowship to study methods of social investigation in the United Kingdom. He has just returned after his six months' observation tour in Great Britain. With his help and that of the other members of the Faculty, we hope to make social research an important feature of the work of the Institute in serving public and private bodies. (See Appendix III.)

In view of the fact that our Government is taking greater interest in the assimilation of the tribal population, it was felt that the Institute should train personnel for the promotion of their social welfare. Specialisation courses, therefore, are being planned in this field under the division—Anthropology and Tribal Welfare. Dr. D. N. Majumdar,

the well known Indian Anthropologist, has been appointed to the Faculty of the Institute and it is hoped that work in this field will begin from July, 1950. This project will, we hope, prove in time a source of strength in promoting social work in tribal areas.

As major social problems, Crime and Juvenile Delinquency have during the past years received some attention in the general curriculum. Recently, however, increased demands have been made by the Prison Departments of Provincial Governments, as well as private agencies interested in the treatment of offenders and prevention of crime, to offer specialised training for personnel interested in prison work and other related services. In response to these demands, it has been decided to offer specialisation courses in Criminology and Correctional Methods. We are negotiating for technical assistance of an expert from the United States to organise an adequate training programme in this field. In the meanwhile, Mr. J. J. Panakal, Research Assistant of the Institute, has been deputed for advanced training at the Ohio State University under the guidance of the well known American Criminologist, Dr. Walter C. Reckless. (See Appendix IV.)

The Library of the Institute has perhaps the best collection of books on applied social sciences in India. It has about 8,000 carefully selected books, pamphlets and Government publications covering the principal fields of interest in social work and related sciences and valuable additions are being made from time to time. As there are no prescribed text books, students are given adequate guidance to enable them to make the best use of the Library for private study as well as research. Inquiries by mail made by those who cannot

visit the Library in person are always answered promptly by the Librarian. Similarly, bibliographical help is given on request. (See Appendix V.)

At this point it may be mentioned that, during the last few years, the Institute has become increasingly important as a centre for information and consultation. Requests come in not only from the *alumni* but also from Government Departments, social service agencies, individual members of the public and the Division of Social Activities of the United Nations. To meet these demands for specific help and guidance, a special service is maintained making use of the resources available at the Institute. Assistance is also given to members of the Press in the preparation of articles and news material dealing with social affairs.

Owing to the inadequate staff and the consequent heavy pressure of work, it has not been possible for the Faculty to devote much attention in the past to social research. However, since the establishment of the Bureau of Research and Publications and the additions to the staff, more attention is now being paid to this field. Among recent publications are: *Our Beggar Problem*, *Mobilising Social Services in War-time*, *For Indians Going to America—A Guide for Students*, *Dharavi—An Economic and Social Survey of a Village*, *Students and Social Work*. The Bureau hopes in coming years to produce more valuable and useful literature pertaining to social problems.

In addition to bringing out books, the programme of the Bureau includes the publication of the *Indian Journal of Social Work*. This quarterly publication, the only one of its kind in India, is devoted to the promotion of professional social work, scientific interpretation of social problems and advancement of social research. Articles reflecting a breadth of interest and diversity

of subject matter in this special field are included in its pages. It is gratifying to note that it is not only growing in circulation but serving as a means of social education for adults interested in social activities.

A project recently undertaken is the investigation of the social and economic effects of alcoholism in urban areas. It is being carried on in some selected places like Sholapur, Hubli and Surat by our Students under the supervision of Dr. Lorenzo. Another programme of investigation was started at the request of the Bombay Municipality for a census of squatters in the city of Bombay. This information was required by the Bombay Municipality for a Conference with the Government to discuss the problem of housing dishoused or unhoused persons in Bombay. Under the guidance of Dr. Moorthy, several of our students gathered the necessary data and gained much valuable experience through coming in close contact with the problems of homeless individuals and families. The opportunities for social research in India are many, and valuable investigation can be undertaken if more staff and equipment are added to the Bureau.

It is gratifying to report that there has been a steady growth in enrolment. During the period 1936-42, students were admitted only once in two years. Thereafter, it was decided to have annual admissions in view of the growing demand for trained workers. In selecting students due attention is given to the needs of the various Provinces and States. The total number of students who have graduated from the Institute is 135. Eleven more were granted certificates as they were undergraduates admitted for training under special conditions. It has been decided to discontinue this practice and admit only graduates of recognised

universities. Candidates who have successfully completed (1) the five term curriculum; (2) the required amount of field work, and (3) a thesis project acceptable to the Faculty, are awarded the Diploma in Social Service Administration. At present there are 85 students under training out of whom 24 will receive their Diploma and 1 her certificate at this Convocation.

Supervised field work is required of all students working for the Diploma. During the first term, students are not placed in social service agencies for actual field work, but they visit institutions in order to acquaint themselves with the various types of social work carried on in the city of Bombay. From the beginning of the second term to the end of the fifth term, students participate in the activities of field work centres. Some of the industrial concerns, hospitals and social service agencies co-operate with us in providing field work experience for our students.

As social work is now winning recognition as a profession, it has become possible for graduates of the Institute to fill responsible positions such as the following: Welfare Officers for Municipalities and Government agencies, Factory Inspectors, Labour Officers, Personnel Officers, Industrial Relations Officers, Medical and Psychiatric Social Workers, Family Case Workers, Research Workers and Investigators, Emergency Relief Organisers, Social Workers in Prohibition and Backward Class Departments, Probation and Parole Officers, Secretaries for Social Service Organisations, Superintendents of Institutions for Children, the Aged and other socially and physically handicapped persons.

In order to supply personnel for key positions, the Institute adopted the principle of sending experienced and promising

alumni for advanced training abroad. Attempts in this direction are reflected in the number of our graduates who have had opportunities for academic or practical training in foreign institutions. Several of them have returned to India and are holding positions of responsibility. Some of them are on the staff of the Institute. In addition to the above, I am glad to report that 11 *alumni* and two members of the Faculty have had the privilege of observation tours abroad as United Nations Social Welfare Fellows. (See Appendix VI.)

Apart from the educational services rendered by the Institute, there are several practical efforts, some of which are of a pioneering nature, made under its auspices. The Child Guidance Clinic, started in 1937, and maintained by the Institute, serves primarily as a laboratory for our students to gain practical experience in working with problem children referred to the Clinic by different agencies and to learn how to diagnose and treat such cases; and secondly it provides treatment to children with behaviour disorders and guidance to their parents. The kinds of problem cases referred range from truancy to complex personality and behaviour deviations. The Clinic is now housed in the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children, Parel. Besides carrying on the training activities of the Clinic, the staff, consisting of a Psychologist, a Psychiatrist and a social worker, participate in courses offered to students preparing for the Diploma in Pediatrics of the University of Bombay. (See Appendix VII.)

During the early part of 1948, the Institute prepared a scheme for the education of children who are in hospitals for long term treatment. It is a common knowledge that children in hospitals with chronic ailments are in need of educational and

recreational facilities. It is necessary not only to keep them occupied in doing something useful and interesting but also to provide them opportunities for their mental growth. This scheme, was approved by the Bombay Government and the necessary finance sanctioned. With the aid of this grant the Institute has organised an educational programme in the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children, Parel.

This is a new field of work in India and it began in February, 1949, with the appointment of two qualified teachers experienced in teaching children whose work is supervised by Dr. Mrs. Kamala Bhoota. The informal education imparted includes teaching of languages, handicraft and art work. As many of these children are confined to bed and are of various age groups with wide differences in their cultural background, it has been found necessary to give them individual instruction to meet their respective needs. In addition to the above activities, the children are provided with not only games like snakes and ladders, dominoes, but also books for light reading during leisure time. This programme adds a little cheer to their otherwise dull and monotonous life and contributes much to their mental growth and development. It is encouraging to witness with what great enthusiasm these children now celebrate festivals in the hospital wards. This novel experiment, will, we hope, lead other hospitals in India to provide such facilities for children undergoing long term treatment. (See Appendix VIII.)

A notable example of the contribution made by the Institute to the social work movement in India is the sponsoring of the first All India Conference of Social Work by the Alumni Association. The Conference held in Bombay in November, 1947, set up a permanent organisation known as the

Indian Conference of Social Work which has been now affiliated to the International Conference of Social Work. The Alumni and the Faculty are actively associated with the work of the Conference.

The Institute rendered another notable service to the country when it responded to the appeal of the Prime Minister for help in organising relief work for the millions of displaced population. A batch of our students under the guidance of Dr. Mehta was sent to organise relief work in Delhi and Kurukshetra. The work done by our students was much appreciated by Lady Mountbatten and the Government of India. The following excerpt from the letter dated February the 2nd, 1948, from Mr. Evert Barger, Special Representative of the Director of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, addressed to the Director of the Institute, provides an insight into the manner in which our students handled problems presented to them:

"Before leaving for England on the conclusion of my visit to India and Pakistan, I want to send you a few lines to record my admiration of the contribution which the Tata Institute of Social Sciences has made to the solution of the refugee problem. It was a national emergency, and during my visits to Kurukshetra and the East Punjab I found that you and your colleagues had looked upon it as such. I shall not easily forget the hours that I was privileged to spend with your students at Kurukshetra, their initiative, keenness and powers of organisation. They knew what they were doing, what wanted to be done and how to do it."

The need for keeping in touch with modern trends in social work and with social work leaders and institutions in the U. S. and the

U. K., has long been felt. Difficulties in establishing such contacts with the West have now been largely overcome. In 1947, the Institute secured affiliation with the International Committee of Schools of Social Work which enabled our Institute to become known to the schools of social work in various parts of the world. The Director of the Institute spent over six months in 1945 visiting institutions of higher learning and social agencies in the U. S. as guest of the Cultural Division of the U. S. State Department. Further, he had additional opportunities of strengthening and enlarging contacts in Europe and the U. S. when he went aboard in April, 1948, as a member of the Indian Delegation to the Fourth International Conference of Social Work held in Atlantic City, New Jersey. The trip was sponsored by the Government of India and Sir Dorabji Tata Trust. Incidentally, it may be pointed out that this participation of the Government showed their increasing realisation of the growing importance of social work in India. In July, 1949, the Director was invited to be a member of a special advisory body consisting of seven international experts called by the Department of Social Affairs of the United Nations to discuss problems relating to the study of prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. As a result of these visits and the contacts established by him, it has been possible for the Institute to secure not only valuable literature in the field of applied social sciences but also financial aid for the *alumni* for advanced training abroad. (See Appendix IX.)

During December, 1948, the Institute was shifted from its premises in Byculla to Andheri in the suburbs. This was done in order to have additional space to make the expansion of the Institute possible. Plans for suitable buildings to house this growing institution have been completed. The Gov-

ernment of India have approved the plans and construction will soon begin in Worli where adequate plots have been secured.

In coming years, the Institute will have increasing responsibilities to shoulder. We have to continue our programme as a training centre for social workers. We have to assist both the public and the private agencies in the organisation and administration of new types of social work, and in the co-ordination and planning of welfare programmes. We are aware that we shall face many obstacles during the years ahead, but encouraged by what we have already achieved, we hope cheerfully to continue to work for objectives still to be realised.

The achievements of the Institute so far were made possible by the sustaining interest shown by the Board of Trustees. To them and to the Governments of India, Bombay, Hyderabad and Mysore who have contributed generously to the building fund as well as to the maintenance of the Institute, we wish to express our heartfelt gratitude. We take this opportunity of offering our sincere thanks to all the persons and institutions who co-operated in our work, particularly, the authorities of the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children for housing the Child Guidance Clinic, the Ford Motor Co. of India Ltd., and the Firestone Tyre and Rubber Co. of India Ltd., for enabling their staff to serve our Institute as Honorary Lecturers. We also thank the Health Ministry of the Government of India for allowing Dr. M. N. Rao of the All-India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health to give a course of lectures this year on Industrial Hygiene. We are grateful to those medical experts in the city of Bombay who co-operated with us in the new programme of lectures on Medical Information.

I also wish to record my sincere appreciation of the valuable services rendered by the Faculty, and the Staff. Finally, I close

this Report with our warmest thanks to the Chairman and members of the Governing Board who have been a constant source of guidance and inspiration to us. They have often helped the accomplishment of what at first seemed impossible. Let us hope that

the Tata Institute of Social Sciences will continue to be of service to the country in the years to come by preparing well-qualified young men and women ready to serve their motherland in the ever-widening fields of social work.

SOCIAL EDUCATION*

With more than half the population of the world illiterate, the problem of adult social education has assumed world-wide importance. In the words of Dr. Bodet Torres, Director General of the UNESCO, it is one of the "most disquieting problems of the world". Barring advanced countries of Europe and America, in most of the countries of Asia, South America and Africa, the standard of literacy is abjectly low. The UNESCO, other organisations, and the Governments of different under-developed countries have seriously begun to apply their minds to the solution of this burning problem of the world. It was only last July that the UNESCO held a special Inter-American Seminar at Brazil to consider the problem of educating nearly 10 crores of illiterate Adult Americans. A similar Seminar on Adult Education representing all the countries of Asia is already in session at Mysore, to solve the same acute problem of the illiteracy of 70 crores of our unfortunate Adults of Asia.

If in the present insecure world out-look, peace and security are to be preserved it is essential that we consider this problem of Adult Social Education as a national emergency. We are glad to note that only the other day, while inaugurating the Adult Education Seminar at Mysore, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad our Minister of Education stated that the Government of India proposes to give first priority to the

programme of Social Education in its schemes of the educational development of the country. Not only for the present generation, but for the future generation also, we must completely educate the parents of today so that they in their turn may educate their own children and thus lay a sure foundation of new order of social peace and well-being for the whole world.

Coming nearer home the percentage of literacy among adults in our country is hardly 10%, meaning thereby that 17 crores of the brothers and sisters of our State have been grovelling in the mire of ignorance. Imagine how we can run a modern democratic State requiring the fullest co-operation and civic participation of every adult citizen in the running of the State, when we have amongst every hundred men and women, 90 men and women to whom a printed page is a complete mystery. The picture is one of grave and anxious concern for our whole nation and the sooner we tackle the problem the better will be the future of India and the world.

Even in Bombay, the premier city in India, there are 10 laes adults who, on account of circumstances beyond their control, have not had the benefit of receiving even the formal training in the 3 R's. The movement of Adult Education—now called Social Education—in the city has just completed a decade and it will not be out of place to give here a brief resume

* Speech by Shri Champaklal G. Modi, President, Bombay City Social Education Committee, at the inaugural meeting of the first Social Education Week, Bombay, November, 1949.

of the Committee's work. The Committee has till October 1949 educated over 3 lacs of adults of whom 1,90,000 have passed the educational test. It is pertinent to note that of the latter 40,000 are women. These figures are in progressive stages or advance so far made. The average number of adults made literate in the first quinquennium 1939-44, was about 13,500 per year; in the second quinquennium 1944-49 it was 19,000, while at present the figure has risen to over 25,000 per year. It may also be noted that other 20,000 adults annually attend the continuation classes known as Post Literacy Classes, and perfect what they have learnt in the initial Social Education classes.

The Committee has been working out a Ten Year Plan adopted in 1946 and approved by the Government of Bombay. The Plan aims at making the adult population of the city fully educated within ten years. This plan has been improved upon by what is known as the "New Approach to the Ten Year Plan", which has led to a revitalising of the movement more especially in the matter of administration, supervision and teaching.

The city, however, has its own difficulties and problems peculiar to a big industrial urban area. We have to work among the lowest of strata of society—the people living in the slums—the labourers working in the numerous mills, workshops and factories, the dock-workers, Harijans, Pathans, Bhaiyas and others. Our classes are held in the very homes of these pupils—in chawls, in verandahs, in shops, in streets, on footpaths and very few in Municipal School class rooms. Over 800 classes with 3 sessions per year of 4 months each are dotted all over this vast industrial area and mostly work during night time except for the classes for women, which

work during day time. The adults tired after their daily toil have to be persuaded and cajoled to attend the classes. In spite of these handicaps, the response from the illiterate mass is fairly encouraging. There is a great deal of awakening of a new national spirit among the masses after the advent of freedom and what is needed is to canalise that awakening and that spirit into the right channels so as to make the great mass of workers a bulwark of the nation's security and newly found freedom.

We in the city have also to face the problem of the constant influx of illiterate adults who come down to Bombay from the rural areas from all over India seeking employment in the City Mills, Workshops and Factories. On account of this continuous influx of the rural population we have to serve as a clearing house for these adult illiterates for the ultimate benefit of the rural areas of the country. When these men and women after being educated return to their villages they in their turn as silent messengers spread the message of Social Education among the rural population of the country. With a floating population like this our progress may look slow but we have the satisfaction of having in the ultimate analysis helped the State to some extent in the solution of the problem of liquidating illiteracy from the rural areas. In fact the more I see of the movement in the City the more I feel that the two problems of liquidating illiteracy from the rural and urban areas are complementary and may not be considered in water-tight compartments. They are only slightly differing facets of the same problem.

It may be emphasised that the Committee's efforts are not confined merely towards making adults literate. Under the blinding illiteracy prevailing in the under-

developed parts of the city, we have preforce to give precedence to the achievement of as high a literacy percentage as is possible. The imparting of literacy, however, is only a means to a higher end and we have never lost sight of the broader aspects of adult social education, viz: education for informed and effective citizenship. The aim of Social Education has been not merely to give a better place in the labour market to the illiterate adult but to give him the opportunity for living a fuller, richer and more interesting life and to equip him for a more intelligent citizenship in a democratic state. Within the limited resources at our disposal, we have been trying to impart instruction in our classes in matters relating to health, hygiene, sanitation, general knowledge, national history and geography, common current topics, civics and culture, so as to turn out not only literate, but informed, efficient and responsible citizens, understanding more their duties than their rights. All this is attempted to be achieved through educational and documentary films, cultural programmes, simple handicrafts, talks, circulating libraries, mobile audio-visual education van, social excursions, trips, community gatherings, etc.

For this great cause, we have been seeking in every way possible the co-operation of the people themselves. We have formed Local and Chawl Committees to help us in organising and supervising the classes. We have also appealed to the big employers of labour—especially the mill-owners to start classes of their own. A few mills have already started their own classes, others are planning to do so. The G. I. P. and the B. B. & C. I. Railway administrations are also devising plans to educate their illiterate workers under our guidance. It is a bright sign for the

future that our big employers of labour have been realising the salient truth that an educated worker is any day better and more efficient than an illiterate one.

The Committee has also moved in another direction to meet the lack of good teachers. It has sought the co-operation of the student-world through the representatives of City Colleges and Schools. A scheme for enabling college students to participate in this campaign has been formulated by a committee of college Principals appointed last year. An oft repeated criticism against our present system of higher education is that it is divorced from the real and practical aspects of life and that it creates a vast gulf between the educated few and the masses. This criticism is to a large extent, justified and we should do all we can to remove it. Educating the masses is the best social service that our college and high school students can render. They will thereby come into close contact with the masses and will also learn what real social service means. This will mean double benefit to the giver and to the taker. Conscription of students of social service has become a live question of the day. Whatever decisions Government may take, shall I renew my appeal to all students voluntarily to help us in all possible ways specially by volunteering as teachers to educate our more unfortunate brethren.

In our scheme of Social Education I envisage in the not distant future the founding of the first model community centre to be followed later by other such centres so that throughout the under-developed areas of the city these will serve as focal points of attraction for the people holding community gatherings, recreational and cultural activities etc. The necessity of a full-time Training College is long over-due to benefit not only our teachers

but teachers and social workers of the rural areas of the whole Province.

The Social Education Week is an annual feature of our campaign and till last year was called the Literacy Week. With the wider meaning given to adult education, it has been called the First Social Education Week. This Week is being celebrated with the double purpose of concentrating the public mind on the urgent necessity of Social Education and also of making up the deficit this year of about 2 lacs. The Committee has till now spent over 14 lacs on the campaign and the present annual expenditure comes in the neighbourhood of Rs. 5 lacs. The

Government of Bombay bears fifty percent of the yearly expenditure and the Bombay Municipality, I am glad to mention has increased the grant from Rs. 25,000/- to Rs. 50,000/- from the last year. For the rest of the expenditure, we have to depend on the generosity of the citizens of Bombay. They are responding to our call every year generously and I am sure, your special appeals today will most certainly result in an enthusiastic response from the people of our city—a city which rightly calls itself *Urbs Prima in Indis*—and which now aims at being "*Urbs Prima Literatus in Indis*"—the first fully educated city in India. Jai Hind!

TATA INSTITUTE NOTES

CLASS OF 1949-51.

1 Appadorai, (Miss) S. H. Sc. (Dip) B. A., Nagpur University, <i>Bangalore, Mysore State.</i>	1948 1949	10 Deshpande, P. M. B. A., Nagpur University M. A., <i>Nagpur, C. P. & Berar</i>	1947 1949
2 Argade, P. K. B. Sc., (Agri) Bombay University <i>Poona, Bombay Province</i>	1949	11 Diventri, (Miss) H. J. B. A., Bombay University <i>Bombay City</i>	1949
3 Barnes, (Miss) P. B. A., (Hons.), Madras University B. T., <i>Trichinopoly, Madras Province</i>	1946 1947	12 Gupta, G. C. B. A., Agra University M. A., <i>Etawah, U. P.</i>	1946 1948
4 Bhagat, M. L. B. A., Patna University <i>Ranchi, Bihar</i>	1947	13 Gaikwad, P. R. B. A., Nagpur University <i>Ahmednagar, Bombay Province</i>	1948
5 Chakravarti, K. P. B. A., Calcutta University M. A., <i>24 Parganas, West Bengal</i>	1946 1948	14 Irani (Miss) J. M. B. A., Bombay University <i>Poona, Bombay Province</i>	1949
6 Dalal (Mrs.) S. N. B. A., Bombay University B. T., <i>Bombay City</i>	1947 1949	15 Koul H. N. B. A., Punjab University <i>Srinagar, Jammu and Kashmir State</i>	1947
7 Damle, S. G. B. A., Bombay University B. T., <i>Bombay City</i>	1935 1939	16 Lall (Miss) B. K. B. Sc., E. Punjab University <i>Kapurthala, E. Punjab</i>	1948
8 Datta, P. M. B. A., Dacca University <i>Cachar, Assam</i>	1948	17 Madan, J. C. B. A., Bombay University <i>Bombay City</i>	1949
9 Deshpande, D. G. B. A., (Hons.), Poona University <i>Hyderabad State</i>	1949	18 Marolia (Miss) M. J. B. A., Bombay University <i>Bombay City</i>	1949

19	Mathur, J. L. B. A., Agra University M.A., Lucknow University LL.B., "Jodhpur, Rajasthan"	1937 1939 1939	26	Sakhwalkar, (Miss) S. B. A., Agra University Kanpur, U. P.	1949
20	Murthy, S. A. B. A., (Hons.), Mysore University Bhadravati, Mysore State	1947	27	Sarangdhar, V. V. B. A., Bombay University M.A., "Bombay City"	1940 1943
21	Paiva, J. F. X. B. A., (Hons.) Madras University Colombo, Ceylon	1946	28	Shah, M. G. B. A., Bombay University Baroda, Bombay Province	1949
22	Pinto (Miss) I. M. A., Bombay University Bombay City	1949	29	Shaw, F. S. B. A., Bombay University Godhra, Bombay Province	1948
23	Prasad, R. C. B. A., Patna University Patna, Bihar	1948	30	Shukla, R. M. G. B. A., Agra University M. A., "Gonda, U.P."	1947 1949
24	Rajurkar (Miss) V. H. B. A., Nagpur University Amraoti, C. P. & Berar	1948	31	Tiwari, R. R. B. A., Agra University Rewa, Vindhya Pradesh	1949
25	Ray (Miss) K. B. A., Calcutta University M. A., "Dhakuria, West Bengal"	1946 1949	32	Vyas, (Miss) I. B. A., Delhi University M. A., "Daryaganj, Delhi"	1946 1949

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BOOK REVIEWS

A Community at the Cross-Road by Sapur Faredun Desai. New. Book Co., Bombay (pp. 201. Rs. 10/-)

The Parsi Community, forming a tiny fractional part of the Indian people, has always been the focal point of deep interest for other communities in the country. However, the information available about the social, economic and other conditions of the Parsis is not commensurate with the deep interest felt in them.

"A Community at the Cross-Road" by Sapur Faredun Desai, himself a member of the Parsi Community, fulfills the long felt need for such a study, imparting fairly extensive and adequate information, about the social, economic and other aspects of the life of contemporary Parsees. After portraying these aspects, the author points out the evils working at the heart of the Parsi society and which according to him tend towards its social, economic, moral and socio-biological disintegration. After diagnosing the disease, the author suggests remedies, determined by his particular eugenic and sociological theories, to overcome their evils and arrest the process of disintegration.

The book is rich in factual data represented by numerous tables and graphs. Further, the author has made instructive comparisons of the social conditions and tendencies of the Parsi Community with those of other communities. Though the author is animated with a profound love for his community, he fearlessly locates and reveals, throughout his research and generalization, the weaker sides of the life of the community. His approach to the

problem, is that of an investigator imbued with the passion for objective truth. One may agree or disagree with the programme of remedies suggested by him for the regeneration of the Parsi society but one cannot remain unimpressed with the objective approach which he consciously adopts for investigating the problem.

The Indian Parsis, the author remarks, are descendants of a powerful race which, centuries back lived in Iran and evolved a rich and complex civilization.

Even when as a result of vicissitudes of history, a section of the race migrated to and settled in Western India, it made decisive contribution to the material and cultural advance of the new land in which it domiciled.

In contrast to their glorious ancient traditions and brilliant achievements of recent past, the author remarks, the contemporary Indian Parsi community is exhibiting alarming signs of social, socio-biological and economic degeneration.

The author regrets the growing tendency among the Parsis to migrate from the rural area to cities. This has led to the undermining of their physical and moral health. He further refers to the alarming growth of poverty among the once affluent Parsis during last few decades. Increasing strata of the Parsi population are being impoverished in Bombay where 52% of the total Parsi population (about 12,00,00) is concentrated. "Decades ago the Parsi Community boasted of not having a single beggar in its ranks. To-day that proud boast lies low. Apart from actual and professional beggary we have before us a

sorry spectacle of armies of economically hard hit families asking for help from funds and philanthropic individuals". The author estimates that about 40% of the Parsis in Bombay live about the line of poverty. Even philanthropic Parsi societies are unable to cope up with the problem. The descendants of a sturdy human stock are losing physical vitality, concludes the author.

The author has stressed the falling birth rate among the Parsis as the most alarming evidence of the growing degeneration of the Parsi Community. "It is significant that the Bombay Parsis have fallen by 50% in their birth rate over what prevailed in the beginning of this Century". Further, "If the present trends of birth and death rates continue, by 1961 the community will begin to show an excess of deaths over births."

Late marriage is, according to the author, one of the principal causes of the falling birth rate in the Parsi Community. He castigates celibacy or late marriage due to preference for free life and higher standard of life as infringement of Zoroastrianism.

The birth rate is falling even among the lower economic grades due to inadequate dietetic and housing conditions. However, it is among the upper classes that the birth rate is declining catastrophically. The relative preponderance of births among lower sections over those among educated and enterprising upper classes would lead, the author states, to a socio-biological deterioration of the Parsis who constitute, according to him, a definite ethnic group.

The author suggests a programme of measures to arrest the falling rate of birth among the Parsis as well as to strengthen the community biologically. "Obviously,

the Parsis are on the decrease, unless the marriage rate goes up again and not only marriage rate but reproduction also." And further, "All those intelligent persons who know their line should continue, must undertake parenthood responsibilities personally."

The author's view of almost selective breeding as the main means to raise an aristocratic stock (of intellect, capacity and moral worth) approximates to that of Nietzsche and other biological sociologists who stressed the factor of heredity to the serious underestimate of the social environmental factors in shaping characters. If the upper classes exhibit intellectual, aesthetic and other capacities, it is because they have means and opportunity for assimilating socially accumulated culture, higher education etc. A Bertrand Russell would have remained a crude human being if he had been isolated at birth from culturally advanced English Society and if he had miraculously survived under the fostering care of a wolf-mother. Though genic structure inherited at birth is an important factor in the moulding of an individual, the environmental factor probably plays by far the greater role.

The author is a racist in his sociological theory. He permits intermarriage between the Hindus and the Muslims on the ground that both belong to the same race. He logically interdicts intermarriage between the Parsis and other communities since he is a racist and regards the Parsis as a distinct ethnic unit.

In spite of the note of alarm which the author sounds regarding the future of the Parsi Community, he is an optimist. In his concluding remarks he says, "The Parsis of the present day are descended from their Iranian ancestors who at one time owned a large and rich kingdom and no less a

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culture....Thus cheerfulness, courage, diligence, loyalty, justice, tolerance, straightforwardness, generosity, prodigality, love for luxury, gaiety, amiability, hospitality, boisterousness, alternating fits of hilarity and despondency etc. are some of the characteristics which most of the Parsis still possess". With these qualities inherited and surviving he visualizes a bright future for the community.

The book is a distinct contribution to the existing literature on the life conditions of the intelligent, enterprising, generous-hearted and dynamic Parsi Community and must be read by all.

A. R. D.

Social Insurance and India by Manohar R. Idgunji. Thacker & Co., Bombay. (pp. 352. Rs. 12/8/-).

The Social Insurance movement, which has for its objective guaranteeing economic security to the individual, in periods of unemployment or physical disability, is a live and important movement in the contemporary society. Programmes of social insurance, of different efficacies, have been formulated and implemented, in various countries of the world, bringing partial relief to the poor and middle strata of society in those countries. During the present period of the Post-Second World War economic crisis, which has resulted in serious deterioration of the economic position of large mass of the people, the social insurance movement has gathered special momentum. Sociologists, economists, politicians, industrialists and labour leaders of all nations have given greater attention to the question of social insurance.

"Social Insurance and India" by Manohar R. Idgunji is a valuable con-

tribution to the extremely limited literature on the subject at present existing in India.

The book consists of two Parts. In Part I the author discusses the principles underlying the Social Insurance movement, the problems germane to the movement such as Workmen's Compensation, Sickness Insurance, Pension Insurance, and Unemployment Insurance as also the financial aspects of Social Insurance such as financial resources, the actuarial technique and financial administration. Part II embodies the author's analysis of the socio-economic conditions of the people of India, his critique of the Social Insurance legislation enacted by various Indian governments, past and present, his evaluation of different schemes (both implemented and unimplemented) of social insurance operated by various bodies, and finally his own views and practical suggestions.

The author in the book also refers to the historical genesis of the social insurance movement and draws a comparison between the social insurance movement in India with similar movements in important countries of the world.

He has pointed out the role of the State in modern times in controlling and managing, wholly or partly, the schemes of social insurance. This has the advantage of cheapening the cost of machinery of social insurance.

The author discusses alternatives to social insurance suggested by other schools of thought. "While the alternative of public grants or social assistance has been suggested in many places, the alternative of higher

wages and private savings have been suggested particularly in the U.S.A. He criticizes these alternatives.

Regarding social assistance, he holds the view that it tends to have a demoralizing effect on its beneficiaries. He remarks "Charitable assistance given in the form of hospitals, grocery relief orders etc. is provided for workers who by their own independent and intelligent organization can help themselves.

He concludes: "However, social assistance, though useless as a substitute can be highly useful as a complement to social insurance, for instance, in Great Britain and Ireland, unemployment assistance schemes have been established on a permanent and highly systematic basis, side by side with compulsory unemployment insurance".

The state exchequer, and the contributions made by the employers and the employees constitute the triple source of the finances requisite for implementing social insurance schemes.

After discussing the theory and practice of social insurance in general, the author deals with the problem of social insurance in relation to the concrete socio-economic conditions prevailing in India. The Social Insurance movement in India, he points out, is still in its infant stage and, therefore, staggeringly inadequate to provide economic security to millions of poverty-stricken persons.

He refers to the existing state of appalling poverty and consequent grave economic insecurity in which big section of the Indian lives. This has resulted in the undermining of the health and strength of the working population. He criticizes "the tendency to confine the problem of social security to

the industrial population alone," ignoring the agricultural population which constitutes almost 72 percent of the total population and which lives in dire poverty.

The low level of economic development of India and the resultant insufficient national wealth are the principal obstacles in the way of successful introduction of social insurance in our country. Britain, U.S.A. and other countries were able to put into action gigantic social insurance schemes because they had as the prerequisite a highly developed and rich national economy. Hence the author exhorts the Indian people to intensely concentrate of a programme of rapid economic development of the country.

The author has clearly and convincingly explained the dependence of a comprehensive social insurance scheme, for success, on the material prosperity of a people, the result of a rich well-balanced highly developed national economy. We will make one observation here.

The author visualizes a stage in India's economic development, a peak of economic prosperity, when due to tremendous growth of total national wealth, the realization of a comprehensive social insurance scheme guaranteeing social security to poor and needy sections of the nation will be economically possible. He is, however, unable to conceive a phase in the country's economic evolution when poverty and need themselves may disappear from Indian society. A planned and maximum utilization of science, technology, enormous natural resources of the country and labour power of the nation, would at some stage augment the total national wealth to an amazing degree. If this wealth were to be rationally distributed among the people it is possible that want itself may vanish

and the very necessity of social insurance be eliminated.

However effective a scheme of social insurance be, it presupposes a society with want and poverty. Inability to conceive a society without social insurance implies the pessimistic assumption that want and poverty rampant in society can never be liquidated and that consequently social insurance will remain a permanent social necessity.

As we said at the outset, the book is a useful addition to the meagre literature on the subject of Social Insurance in India. It is an able exposition of the problem of social insurance both in its theoretical and

practical aspects. The author has also realistically related it to the complex of social and economic conditions prevailing in our country. The book has an added significance to-day when the Indian people are living through a profound economic crisis (a part of the world economic crisis), when the process of impoverishment of the middle and lower strata of Indian society is advancing at an alarming tempo, when more than ever a scientific scheme of social insurance becomes vitally necessary for alleviating the suffering of these strata.

We recommend the book for perusal to all serious students of Indian situation.

A. R. D.

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APPENDIX

I. REPORT ON INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS DIVISION

The rapid industrialisation of the country has emphasized the need for trained personnel in all types of industries and all walks of industrial life. In response to this growing need The Tata Institute of Social Sciences recently developed specialisation courses in Industrial Relations and Personnel Management, with Dr. M. V. Moorthy, who had advanced training in this field, in the U.S.A., in charge of the Division. The batch of students specialising in this field will graduate in December 1949. The subjects are so chosen as to give them an understanding of the problems of Industrial Relations and Personnel Management in historical perspective along with principles and practices which obtain in various industries and countries.

The subjects taught are:—

1. 'Indian labour problems'—a course designed to give factual presentation of the many problems facing labour.

2. 'Indian Industries'—a study of the material resources of the country tracing the origin, development and distribution of various industries.

3. 'Labour Unions, History, Structure and Functions'. This course gives details about the development of Unions and their patterns with the social, economic and political forces influencing them.

4. 'Labour Legislation' covers a comparative study of important legislative enactments regarding labour.

5. 'Industrial Disputes and Collective Bargaining'. It is an advance course investigating into the causes of industrial disputes with reference to current case material.

6. 'Labour Welfare Administration'. This course discusses the philosophies of labour welfare and includes a detailed study of the scope and functions of a separate labour department, its organisation and management.

7. 'Human Relations in Industry'—deals with the factory as a social unit composed of different individuals with varying responsibilities and interests.

8. 'Personnel Management'—leads to the understanding of various types of personnel patterns obtained in industries in India and abroad.

9. 'Industrial Psychology'. This course is designed to give students an understanding of mental and emotional problems arising within the modern industrial system.

10. 'Industrial Health and Hygiene'—covers plant sanitation in relation to human needs.

Lectures and classroom work are managed by Dr. B. H. Mehta, Dr. A. M. Lorenzo and Dr. M. V. Moorthy. Apart from these members of the Faculty, the Institute was fortunate in having as honorary lecturers Mr. C. W. Cable, Personnel Officer, Firestone Tyre and Rubber Company, to teach 'Personnel Management', while Mr. Headderly from the same Company obliged us by giving courses on 'Time and Motion Study'. Mr. Chirputkar, Industrial Relations Officer, Ford Motor Company, handled classes on 'Industrial Relations'. Mr. Edward, Personnel Officer, Associated Cement Company, taught 'Labour Legislation' to the students. On a special request by the Institute, the Government of India kindly deputed as Honorary visiting lecturer, Dr. M. N. Rao of the All India Institute of Industrial

Hygiene, Calcutta, to lecture on Industrial Hygiene. Mr. Richard Deverall, representative in India of the American Federation of Labour, also was kind enough to give a course of five lectures on 'Trade Union Movement in the World'. The Tata Institute places on record its cordial appreciation of the services of these gentlemen and also thanks the above mentioned organisations for their generous co-operative gesture.

The Industrial Relations Division formed two seminar committees, one consisting of Miss K. Parmar and Mr. Gokhale, and another consisting of Mr. Bose, Mr. Baliga and Miss Kalle. A panel discussion led by the famous Trade Union leader, N. M. Joshi, on 'Industrial Disputes' and participated by several students was a model discussion in several ways, providing a new experience in methods of group discussion. Further, two interesting lectures were arranged one by Dr. Dastur, Tata Mills, on 'Human Relations in Industry' and another by Mr. Wazkar, Registrar, Industrial Court, on 'Industrial Disputes and their Settlement'. An important activity of the Division was 'Industrial Relations Workshop Class' which was planned, but could not be gone through for pressure of work on the staff. It is hoped to effectuate this programme next term and material is under preparation for the workshop classes.

Amongst other activities may be mentioned an industrial relations film show arranged at the Famous Cine Laboratories, Mahalaxmi. The films were supplied by the Ford Motor Co., The Burmah-Shell and the Lever Bros., and Mr. Chirputkar of The Ford Motor Co., gave the commentary. The students paid a visit to the plant of The Firestone Tyre and Rubber Company. Mr. Cable, Personnel officer of the factory, took the students round and explained the use

of modern appliances installed therein. The students were particularly impressed by the canteen which was being installed along modern lines, at the factory.

In order to provide practical experience in the field of industrial relations to the extent it is possible, the students were placed in the factories, labour welfare centres and labour unions. The students so placed were expected to acquire first hand knowledge of the factory or the union setup, the routine procedure, labour and management relations in their various phases and personnel functions through the field work centres in which they were placed. The Institute is grateful to the following for accepting our students for such field work placements: (1) The Khatau Makanji Mills; (2) The Swadeshi Mills; (3) The Tata Oil Mills; (4) The Artytoys; (5) The Bell Telephone Company; (6) The Municipal Welfare Centre, Foras Road; (7) The B. B. & C. I. Railway; (8) The G. I. P. Railway; and (9) The local Unions of the Indian National Trade Union Congress. In spite of the warm co-operation we had from these organisations the field-work programme could not be made fully satisfactory for lack of supervisory staff and other inherent difficulties involved in an activity of this type. In addition to increasing the supervisory staff, it is increasingly realised that without the active co-operation of the Mill Owners' Association and the Government of Bombay the field work activity of the Industrial Relations Division of the Institute will not be an unqualified success. Plans are being made already to do the needful in this regard.

The Institute had several requests for training candidates from various Government and private organisations. Also there were many placement requests by a few leading industries. For several unavoidable

reasons, we are sorry it has not been possible to meet all these demands. However, we are happy to note that these are indications of the public appreciation of our training programme; and there is, indeed, need for increased activity and expansion on our part in this field.

Many public and private agencies have availed themselves of the honorary services of both Dr. B. H. Mehta and Dr. M. V. Moorthy as often these could spare time. Dr. Moorthy also served on the Workers' Education Committee appointed by the government of Bombay and as member, made important recommendations. He also conducted research for the Municipality of Bombay on the squatters' problem and embodied his findings in a report which has been submitted to the Municipal Commissioner. In his research Dr. Moorthy was assisted by several students of the Institute

interested in the problem of houseless labour. It is also relevant to mention that the Hindustan Aircraft Factory, Bangalore, has through the Institute, invited Dr. Moorthy to advise the management on their industrial relations organization problems. It is thus very encouraging that the staff of the Institute in giving its services, whenever, and as much as it can to outside agencies.

In carrying out our several activities we were, to some extent, handicapped by the distance at which the Institute is situated from the centre of the city as also by the departure, to England, early first term, of Dr. A. M. Lorenzo in charge of social research section. However, taking into account of our modest success so far achieved in the field it may be concluded that it has been a revealing experience in an unexplored field both to the students as well as to the Institute.

II REPORT ON MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK

Medical Social Work is the application of social work principles to medical settings with special emphasis on social case work. Workers with this special type of training are useful in hospitals, public health and welfare agencies.

Humanitarian work with the sick has been known in India from ancient times. But the organisation of social service for the sick on a professional level based on the scientific understanding of human behaviour and social and emotional components of illness is a new development in our country. The Sir Joseph Bhore Health Survey and Development Committee recommended in their report to government that every major hospital should have a hospital social service department and emphasised the im-

portance of medical social workers in the sphere of hospital work. The Bhore committee also recommended the Tata Institute of Social Sciences as an institution able to offer training in this new field of social service. In order to implement the recommendations of the Committee in regard to the employment of social workers in hospitals, the Governing Board of The Tata Institute of Social Sciences agreed in the year 1944 to make provision for offering specialisation courses in this field. It was in December, in 1944 that Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, the Director of the Institute, went to the United States, negotiated with U. S. State Department for the services of a visiting professor in the subject of medical social work. After several months the U. S. State Department succeeded in

securing the services of Miss Lois Blakey of the University of Louisville, Kentucky, as Visiting Professor. Miss Blakey, who has extensive experience not only of teaching and directing field work but also of working in medical social work departments in the U. S. hospitals and during the war period in the Red Cross Hospitals in Europe, arrived in November, 1946. In order to gain personal knowledge of Indian conditions before beginning her work, Miss Blakey spent the first few months in contacting medical men and visiting hospitals to familiarise herself with our health problems, hospital administration and our doctors' awareness of the social factors influencing diseases.

When the preliminary spadework was over, Miss Blakey proceeded to organise a new department of medical social work and to plan class-room instruction and field work for students specialising in the subject. As medical social work was a new profession in India, the training of personnel for such work had to be planned on an experimental basis and so a scheme for the training of medical workers was prepared.

Medical social service is based on the assumption that the medical care to be effective requires consideration of the total needs of the individual—social and emotional as well as physical. It is rather treating the *person* who has the disease and not the diseased condition alone. This requires a knowledge of the way the social situation of the patient affects the disease itself, an understanding of the fact that the patient brings his social attitudes into the hospital with him, and further that the medical treatment will be effective only as the patient is able to use the treatment recommended in the social situation to which he returns. Without this kind of indivi-

dualised knowledge of the patient it is not possible to open up for him any vistas broader than the illness with which he lives. It is the medical social worker who brings the individualised knowledge of the patient to the doctor. This makes for a sound plan of care which usually shortens the duration of illness and consequent need for medical treatment.

The medical social workers are specialists functioning as liaison officers between the doctors and the patients. They are trained to understand the physician's point from both the medical and social angles and interpret the patient's social conditions to the doctor. The diagnosis and treatment of disease and of social problems related to it require, however, technical knowledge. The medical social workers, therefore, must be persons who by professional education in a school of social work have acquired the knowledge and technique of social diagnosis and treatment. The physician recognises physical symptoms and seeks the underlying causes of the disease. The skilled medical social worker recognises the social symptoms of human distress. Each possesses knowledge which the other does not and the making of a medical social diagnosis is a joint process in which the physician and the medical social worker co-operate.

The scheme of instruction in medical social work was evolved on the basis of these salient factors on medical social service. The training programme for medical social workers was designed to cover a period of two years and a half divided into five terms. Miss Blakey put through the programme during the period she was on the Faculty of the Institute as Visiting Professor from November, 1946 to September, 1948. She was also appointed Hon. Supervisor of Medical social work in the Sir J. J., G. T.

and the Cama and Albless hospitals. Miss Blakey devoted much of her time and energy to the training of the three newly appointed medical social workers and to the setting up of social service departments in the above mentioned hospitals.

A hospital social service department is of vital importance in hospital administration. The tackling of personal and environmental factors of patients through a hospital social service department cuts down expenditure in the long run. Very often it so happens that the same ailments in the same patients are treated again and again. The underlying causes are never found out and money is spent without achieving substantial results. Expensive medical treatment may be fruitless if social obstacles to its effectiveness are not removed.

During the period Miss Blakey was in India, Dr. Miss G. R. Bannerjee, a graduate of the Institute, was sent abroad to undergo advanced training in medical and psychiatric social work at the University of Chicago. Dr. Bannerjee specialised in social work in medical and psychiatric settings and obtained the Master's degree of the Chicago University. Miss Blakey returned to the U. S. in October, 1948 and Dr. Miss Bannerjee who joined the Faculty of the Institute took charge of the programme of medical social work from Miss Blakey, in July, 1948. Miss Blakey, however, continued with us till the end of September, 1948 organising the basic training programme, while Miss Bannerjee took charge of the specialised programme for medical social workers. From July, 1948 to March 1949 Miss Bannerjee supervised the work of the medical social workers at the Sir J. J., G. T., and Cama & Albless hospitals, in Bombay. From April, 1949, she has been supervising the work of the medical social workers at the Sir J. J. Group of Hospitals only, as the medical social workers at the other two

hospitals have gone abroad on U. N. O. Fellowships.

The first batch of students specialising in medical social work (1947-49) consists of six students and they will complete their training in December, 1949. Besides this batch of six students, a student, who had finished her training in general social work at the Institute in 1946, was deputed by the Delhi government in 1948, to specialise in medical social work. She finished her training in April, 1949. Another alumnus of the Institute who had graduated in 1942 is undergoing training, this year, for medical social work and she will be completing her specialisation in December, 1949.

The Sir J. J. Group of Hospitals' Social Service Department has been made a field work centre for our students specialising in medical social work since August, 1948. Our medical social work students have been taking up cases from the psychiatry department since May, 1949, and are thus able to receive training in Psychiatric Social Work as well.

A new development in the field of medical social work has been the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign in India. At the sixth Tuberculosis Workers' Conference, held in Calcutta, in December, 1948, the importance of the role of the social worker in the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign was discussed on the basis of an instructive paper presented on the subject by Dr. Miss G. R. Bannerjee.

Miss Bannerjee in her paper dealt with the functions of the social worker in the Tuberculosis Campaign and emphasised the importance of such workers in the Tuberculosis hospitals and clinics. As a result of this paper the Tuberculosis Association of India has now approached the Ministry of Health, Government of India, to arrange for the training of Tuberculosis social workers at our

Institute which has been a pioneer institution in the field of medical social work.

From July, 1949, our medical social work students have been participating in the programme of the Organised Home Treatment Clinic of the Bombay Province Anti-Tuberculosis Association.

In coming years, it is felt that the scope of medical social work will undoubtedly be widened and there will be a greater need of medical social workers in various fields connected with health problems. There will be a greater demand for medical social

workers not only in various hospitals and clinics but also in public health schemes for the control of Tuberculosis, Venereal Disease, Malaria and Leprosy and the programme relating to the health and hygiene in industries etc. We hope we shall be able to train in future more and more social workers with post-graduate qualifications in this specialised field of social work and that the government and the public will appreciate their services and give the profession of medical social work the economic and social status which it so well deserves.

III DR. LORENZO'S STUDY TOUR

Social Research is highly necessary in the planning of social economic pattern of a country. It will be of immense help to administrators in solving current social problems effectively. The need for scientific development of Social Research is felt more in a country like India which is faced, after the independence, with many such problems.

Dr. A. M. Lorenzo, Reader in Applied Economics and Social Research, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, was awarded, last April, a United Nations Fellowship, to study Methods of Social Research in the United Kingdom, for about six months. His observation programme was divided into three broad sections, viz. (a) Theory and Practice of Rural Social Research, (b) Methods and Problems of Urban Social Research, and (c) Organisation and Administration of Social Research Agencies.

During this period of observation, Dr. Lorenzo was attached to the Agricultural Economics Research Institute, Oxford University, to study methods of research and to make a survey of research in Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology. Besides, he visited many Social Research Institutes, in European Universities, and

observed the working and organization of Community Centres, Youth Clubs and Settlements. These studies were supplemented by careful perusal of relevant literature and discussions with experts.

Dr. Lorenzo received a special training in Methods and Techniques of Social Surveys at the Government Social Surveys, under Mr. Louis Moss, in London; he was also attached to the Ministry of Labour for a short observation programme on problems of Industrial Welfare and personnel Management.

Dr. Lorenzo, has submitted a detailed report of his study and observations to the United Nations and the Government of India respectively, and we hope his valuable suggestions will be of great help in the planning and development of Social Research on scientific lines in India.

Since his return to India, in October, 1949, Dr. Lorenzo has reorganised the Department of Social Research at this Institute and has undertaken social surveys on Social Economic Aspects of the Drink Problem in the Bombay Province and the Planning of Shopping Centres in Greater Bombay besides other social problems of wider importance.

IV J. J. PANAKAL. FOR SPECIALISED TRAINING IN CRIMINOLOGY

The study of criminology and penology is much neglected in India. There are no University departments or special institutions in this country offering advanced courses in these fields. The need for training personel for prisons has been greatly felt. Some of the Provincial governments have approached the Tata Institute of Social Sciences for opening a department to teach these subjects. To meet this great demand the Institute is now planning to provide specialisation in this field from December 1950.

As a first step in this direction the Institute is now preparing members of the staff who would be associated with the work of this new department. For this reason it has deputed Mr. J. J. Panakal B.Sc.,

Dip. S. S. A., who has been working on the staff on the Institute as Research Assistant, to make a detailed study in this field at the school of Social Administration, Ohio State University, U. S. A., which is a recognised institution, under the direction of Dr. Walter C. Reckless, who is a well-known criminologist and author of several standard books on the subject. Mr. Panakal joined the University on September 26, 1949. He will spend two years in the U. S. preparing for his M. A. and Ph. D. examinations.

Mr. Panakal is a graduate of the Madras University and had two-year training at the Tata Institute before he joined its staff. As a Research Assistant he specially equipped himself to make a detailed study in this field.

V LIBRARY REPORT

(July to November, 1949)

The Library at the beginning of the term contained 7599 volumes (inclusive of Bound Volumes of Periodicals) to which 214 more were added, during the period of six months, bringing the total to 7813. These 214 Volumes include also 22 gift books received from various institutions, chief amongst these being: (1) Yale University Library; (2) Department of Social Services, Australia; and (3) United States Children's Bureau.

Besides books, the library resources have been enriched by the receipt of useful pamphlets and reports from various institutions, social agencies and Trusts like Russel Sage Foundation, American Library Association and others. Governments of Orissa and Central Provinces have recently intimated that they would be sending us free of cost their administrative reports on Labour

Welfare, Crime, Juvenile Delinquency and Child Welfare.

The Library has been subscribing to 50 periodicals to which the following few were added during this term:

1. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry.
2. Journal of Criminal Law.
3. Journal of Clinical Psychopathology.
4. Membership American Prison Association.
5. Approved School Gazette.
6. Howard Journal.

In addition to the subscribed journals we receive 36 journals on exchange with our "Indian Journal of Social Work". We received the undermentioned journals on gift subscription for a period of one year;

(a) *From Mr. Carl Murchison of the Journal Press*

1. Journal of Genetic Psychology.
2. Genetic Psychology Monographs.
3. Journal of General Psychology.
4. Journal of Social Psychology.
5. Journal of Psychology.

(a) *From United States Information Services*

1. Time.
2. Newsweek.

(c) *From Urban League of Kansas City*

1. Prison Journal.

Dr. Dorothy E. Adams, Editorial Secretary to Federal Probation Quarterly has very kindly added our library to the mailing list of "Federal Probation Quarterly" free of cost.

This brings the total number of periodicals received:

Subscribed	..	50
New additions	..	6
On Exchange	..	36
Gift subscription	..	8
Gratis	..	14

Total Number	..	114
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New Classification.—The whole of Industrial Relations section has been classified according to Dewey Decimal System and special author numbers have been assigned to each of the authors. The catalogue cards are almost complete in all their details on an average of four cards per volume. Alongside, the original routine of accessioning, classifying and preparing catalogue cards according to old specification has to be consistently followed.

The total circulation of books in various sections of the Library comes to 2,625 *i.e.*

500 books on an average every month. These figures do not include the circulation of books amongst the faculty members, books of the Reserved Shelf, Ready Reference books, and references to periodicals. The figures of issues for Reports, Pamphlets and Bulletins could not be maintained.

The following Student Library Workers have been assigned the work of the Library as under:—

1. Mr. J. Kumar. *Taking stock of the Library.*
2. Mr. S. C. Rao. *Periodical Indexing.*
3. Mr. V. Sharma. *Periodical Indexing.*
4. Mrs. I. Deshpande. *Reserved Shelf Supervision.*
5. Mr. F. S. Shaw. *Pamphlets, Reports and Bulletins.*
6. Mr. V. V. Sarangdhar. *Paper Clippings.*
7. Mr. P. R. Gaikwad. *Periodical Section.*
8. Mr. M. Shah. *Accessioning and Preparing books for shelves.*
9. Mr. H. N. Kaul. *Bibliography and list of missing books.*

The details of work done by the Student Library Workers will require a separate report but on the whole, the work done by them is satisfactory.

Reference Service.—The reference service is the most useful operative part of the work of the Library; in fact, every other work in the Library culminates in it. The students are helped to help themselves. They are guided by a sequence of useful suggestions to the right reference books and then made to locate and abstract the required information by their own efforts. This reference service has been also extended to Alumni, institutions and outside individuals. Many

enquiries regarding reading lists, Bibliographies and list of new additions are answered. Requests from Alumni residing outside Bombay and requiring books for their consultation received prompt attention. Efforts are made in every possible way to make the

resources of the Library available to the students and Alumni of the Institution who need their reference consultation and study.

B. I. Trivedi.

Librarian.

VI. OUR ALUMNI—OVERSEAS SCHOLARS AND U. N. FELLOWS

OVERSEAS SCHOLARS

<i>NAME:</i>	<i>Country and Institution:</i>	<i>Field of Specialisation:</i>
1. *Anantanarayanan, P. S.	University of Toronto, Canada	Industrial Psychology.
2. *Bannerjee, Miss G. R.	University of Chicago, U.S.A.	Social Work in Medical and Psychiatric Settings.
3. Batlivala, Miss A.	Smith College, Mass., U.S.A.	Psychiatric Social Work.
4. *Dordi, Miss P. H.	Columbia University, N.Y., U.S.A.	Medical Social Work.
5. *Gopal Rao, G. K.	Ministry of Labour, United Kingdom.	Labour Welfare.
6. Gupta, A. N.	United Kingdom	Trade Unionism.
7. *Kaikobad, N. F.	Pittsburgh University, Penn., U.S.A.	Social Group Work.
8. *Kulkarni, D. V.	Columbia University, N.Y., U.S.A.	Institutional Care of Children.
9. Kutar, Miss M. J.	National Institute of Mental Health, London, United Kingdom.	Education and Care of the Mentally Retarded.
10. Nanavatty, M. C.	Western Reserve University, U.S.A.	Family Case Work.
11. Panakal, J. J.	Ohio State University Ohio, U.S.A.	Criminology and Social Research.
12. *Ram, E. J. S.	Ministry of Labour, United Kingdom.	Labour Welfare.
13. Shah, Mrs. J.	Charles University, Czechoslovakia.	Sociology.
14. Sobhani, Miss H. Y. Z.		Physio-therapy.
15. Vakharia, Miss P. H.	Columbia University, U.S.A.	Child Welfare and Psychiatric Social Work.

U. N. FELLOWS **

<i>NAME:</i>	<i>Country Visited:</i>	<i>Field of Observation:</i>
1. †Bhave, J. V.	United Kingdom.	Labour Welfare.
2. †Cabinetmaker Miss P. H.	United Kingdom.	Social Research.
3. †Goel, O. P.	United Kingdom, Sweden and Denmark.	Child Welfare.
4. †Gupta, J. P.	United States.	Public Welfare and Juvenile Delinquency.
5. †Harshe, G. N.	United States.	Juvenile Delinquency.
6. Kutar, Miss M. J.	United States.	Education and Care of the Mentally Handicapped.
7. †Rajadyaksha, Mrs. K.	United States.	Medical Social Work.
8. †Renu, Mrs. I.	United States.	Child Guidance.
9. †Singh, Wilfred	United States.	Public Welfare and Institutional Care of the Handicapped.
10. †Taraporewalla, Miss D. M.	United Kingdom.	Child and Youth Welfare.
11. †Thozuth, Kechavara	United States.	Juvenile Delinquency.

*Students who have returned to India after completing the period of training.

†Students who have returned to India after completing the period of observation.

**United Nations Social Welfare Fellows.

VII REPORT OF THE CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC

(1948-49)

(DR. MRS. KAMALA BHOOTA)

Mental Health Built in Childhood.—

With the advancement of psychology and psychiatry, there has evolved a very significant concept, namely, the concept of mental health. A mentally healthy individual is one who radiates poise and self-confidence. He is not burdened by such destructive emotions as excessive jealousy, worry, fear or hatred. Therefore, he is able to use his abilities in the best way possible. It is evident that there can be no happiness without mental health. Mental health is the foundation of good citizenship. A complete breakdown of mental health is seen in a person who is 'insane', retiring completely from reality into a make-believe world of his own where he is the king, or where he is surrounded by enemies. A less severe disturbance is seen in persons, who cannot get along without tyrannising others, who resort to drinking as a means of escape from difficulties, who are excessively retiring and docile, who are very 'nervous' and so on. How do people get that way? Research and experience has brought to light an outstanding fact, namely, that the source of these difficulties is found in childhood experiences. The way the child has been treated and looked upon by various members of the family, the experiences he has had such as, death in the family, experience at school, operations, etc., play a most important role in his emotional development, and determine to a large extent, his adult behaviour and happiness.

These findings mean that mental health can be made or unmade in childhood. If a child is to grow up into a mentally healthy, well-balanced person, he must have proper love and a feeling of security. Likewise

any symptoms of disturbed mental health in the child should receive prompt scientific attention. In the course of growth, children present problems, such as, jealousy, destructiveness, truancy, stealing, or lying. These are but symptoms that the child is emotionally disturbed, maladjusted, and that his mental health is affected.

These problems should not be ignored in the vain hope that everything will be alright when he grows up! It is not impossible to correct the emotional difficulties in an adult caused by unpleasant childhood experiences. However, it is much easier and wiser to treat them in childhood. Childhood is a plastic period, and as Dr. White has put it "a golden age for mental hygiene."

The role of the Child Guidance Clinic.—

When children show symptoms of maladjustment, parents need expert help in dealing with them. Such help may be obtained from the Child Guidance Clinic. In the Clinic, an effort is made to investigate and understand the cause underlying the child's behaviour and to formulate a treatment programme in terms of the cause. The Clinic does not merely aim at removing the symptom for which the child may have been referred, but also tries to help the child to achieve useful skills, knowledge, and behaviour patterns and attitudes so that he may solve his life problems with increasing independence and maturity of judgement.

In order to help children towards mental health, the Child Guidance Clinic has a staff of specialists. It may be pointed out,

here, that not every one who has studied psychology is qualified to work in a Child Guidance Clinic. The skills and knowledge necessary for a child guidance worker are acquired through specialised study and training.

There are three types of specialists in a Child Guidance Clinic. They are, the Social Case Worker, the Psychologist and the Psychiatrist. When the child is referred to the Clinic, each one of these specialists studies him. The Social Case Worker discusses the child's development and home background with the parents. The Psychologist studies the child by observing him at play in the playroom provided in the Clinic.

Quite often, he makes use of the psychological tests to obtain a better picture of his mental developments and his personality adjustments. The Psychiatrist tries to probe into his emotional life to gain insight from still another direction into the cause underlying the child's problems.

Having studied the child independently, these specialists together discuss the case child from their respective points of view and then plan to implement a treatment programme. Usually the treatment consists of play for the child in the Clinic and interviews with the parents and the Child. Sometimes it may also necessitate a change in the child's environment.

But the usual child guidance treatment is carried on through play and interviews, and it calls for active co-operation on the part of parents.

The Child Guidance Clinic of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.—This Clinic

was founded in 1937. It was then the first of its kind in the whole of India. The child guidance movement originated in the U.S.A. where the first Child Guidance clinic was founded in 1920. From there the movement has spread to other countries including India.

In 1937, when the Child Guidance Clinic of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences was founded it was located at the Health Visitors' Institute, New Nagpada Road, Byculla, Bombay. However, during the riots in 1946-47 it became inaccessible to the clients, and its work came to a standstill. Therefore, in June, 1947, it was transferred to the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children, Parel, Bombay. The change has been very beneficial to the Clinic. The present location is pleasant and cheerful, and the hospital authorities are very co-operative in every way, frequently giving our patients at the Child Guidance Clinic such medical tests as may be necessary.

Staff.—The Clinic consists of the following staff:

Mrs. Kamala Bhoota, M.A. Ph.D. (Michigan) *Supervisor and Psychologist.*

K. R. Masani, M.R.C.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P.,

D.P.M. (Lond.) *Consultant Psychiatrist.*
N. S. Vahia, M. D. (Bom.) *Psychiatrist.*
Mrs. Indira Renu, B.A., (Madras), B. T.

(Mysore), Dip. S.S.A. (T.I.S.S.)
Psychiatric Social Worker.

Dr. Miss G. R. Banerjee, B.A. (Hons.) (Calcutta), M.A. (Benares), D. Phil. (Allahabad), Dip. S.S.A. (T.I.S.S.), M.A. (Chicago). *Consultant.*

Material Equipment.—The Child Guidance Clinic is located in the out-patient

department of the hospital. On clinic days, the hospital holds its medical out-door clinic elsewhere so that their regular rooms may be used by the Child Guidance Clinic.

The space thus allotted includes two rooms for individual interviews, 3 play-rooms and one room for records, equipment, and for the use of student social workers. All play equipment and furniture are arranged just before clinic hours. One play-room is equipped for sand and water play while the other play-room is given over to doll play or play with toy animals. The third play-room is furnished with a long child-size table and chairs; here children can work with crayons, paints, clay or chalk. Often the out-door space is used for group play and group therapy.

Clinic Hours.—The Clinic hours are from 4.30 P.M. to 6.30 P.M. on Tuesdays and Fridays. The children are observed during this time, by the psychologist and psychiatrist while the social case worker sees the parent. She also visits the child's family at home from time to time. Any psychological testing that may be required is done outside the clinic hours by appointment. A fee is charged for mental testing. The Clinic is closed during the summer vacation for a month and in December for ten days.

Intake Procedure.—Children below 16 can be referred to this Clinic for treatment. The parent or guardian (whoever brings the child to the Clinic) is seen by the social worker first. The case is accepted for treatment if the problem is such as can be treated at the Child Guidance Clinic, and provided the parent is willing to co-

operate in the treatment. When the case cannot be accepted for treatment the Clinic gives diagnostic service, and makes recommendations as to where the client may secure further help. For example, though a mentally defective child is not accepted for treatment, mental defect is diagnosed and the parent is given guidance as to the care and education of the child.

Treatment Methods.—The patient attends the Clinic once or twice a week. He is allowed to play in any play-room he likes. He is introduced to other children with whom he may play if he wishes. His play is carefully observed and recorded. Such free play enables the child to express his conflicts and tensions and this self-expression has diagnostic as well as therapeutic value. Most children when they first come to the Clinic appear timid and too inhibited to play freely. They have to be assured that it is quite permissible to play with any material in the Clinic and to draw or make whatever they please.

After a child becomes familiar with the play material, and the clinical setting, he is interviewed at play by the Psychiatrist or the Psychologist. Direct treatment of the child is carried on chiefly through play and interviews with the child. Drug therapy is being tried on a few cases.

While the child is being treated at the Clinic, the social worker sees his parents, interpreting the child's problem to them in an effort to improve the parent-child relationship. Sometimes, she has to find the child a proper school or a boarding home which may answer his needs in a more constructive way than his home.

Review of the cases referred to the Clinic from June, 1948 to May, 1949:

<i>Nature of Problem.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Result.</i>
Referred for Mental defect	.. 57	These cases were diagnosed, and the parents were given guidance as to the care and education of the child.
Deaf-Mutes	.. 6	Not accepted for treatment.
Attempted suicide	.. 1	} Could not come for treatment or Discontinued it.
Speech disorders	.. 5	
Delinquency	.. 5	
Tremor of hand	.. 2	
Lack of interest in studies	.. 2	
Refusal to eat	.. 1	
Excessive shyness	.. 1	
Neurosis	.. 2	
Sleep walking	.. 1	
Total	.. 20	
<i>Primary behaviour disorders.</i>		
Delinquency	.. 4	Improved
Stealing	.. 2	Partial improvement
Truancy	.. 1	Improved
Stealing	.. 1	Improved
Delinquency	.. 1	No improvement
Lying	.. 1	No improvement
Total	.. 10	
<i>Psycho-somatic disorders.</i>		
Stammering	.. 1	No improvement in the symptom, but improvement in the personality.
Stammering	.. 1	Improvement.
Speech defect	.. 1	Not much improvement.
Bed wetting *	.. 17	One improved, another improved partially while there was no improvement in any of the rest.
Total	.. 20	
<i>Psychosis</i>		
No. of cases	.. 2	Not accepted for treatment.
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Personality disorder	.. 1	Partial improvement.
Wanted a letter of recommendation to Boarding School	.. 2	Not admitted for treatment.
<i>Cases coming for consultation only</i>		
Stealing	.. 1	
Frequency of micturition	.. 1	
Involvement of family quarrels with neighbours	.. 1	
Nervousness	.. 1	
Stealing and fears	.. 1	
Speech defect	.. 2	
Lack of interest in life	.. 1	
Total	.. 8	
Total no. of cases admitted	.. 126	

*Ephedrine therapy was tried on these 17 cases of bedwetting children as follows:

One grain tablet of ephedrine was administered to each patient daily between 5 and 7 P.M.; this was done for a month. The patient was instructed not to drink water after the evening meal, but was required to pass urine before going to bed. A record of the child's bedwetting was kept carefully not only for the month of treatment but for successive months.

Of the 17 patients selected for this experiment, only one had both parents. However, he went to a boarding school, and came home during vacation. The other 16 were from a Children's Home (for destitute children), 12 girls and 4 boys. These patients ranged in age from 5 years to 15 years. Only one patient was cured by this treatment. He was a six year old boy from the Orphanage. A seven year old girl from the same institution showed partial improvement.

The table of referrals to the Child Guidance Clinic gives an indication as to the type of cases which are recognised by parents and others as cases of maladjustment. The greatest number of patients are referred for 'backwardness', or 'slowness'. These mentally defective children represented the entire gamut of feeble-mindedness from very low grade idiocy upwards. The reactions of the parents when the case is diagnosed as a mental defect is varied. Two or three parents refused to accept the child's retardation, and either persisted in sending the child to a regular school or in taking him to a doctor for treatment. Three other parents had brought children with speech defects. When told that the child was retarded, but perhaps that he might be able to talk this much later than normal children, they were very pleased. 'Oh! We don't mind his being retarded as long as he'll be able to talk some time.'

The majority of parents with mentally backward children have accepted the fact that their children will grow very slowly and not as normal children do.

The low grade defectives who need constant care become a great burden on the family. A working class mother has to sacrifice her job in order to look after the child. The plight of such parents is very pitiable indeed. They are most anxious to put the child in an institution but are unable to find such a place. The Chembur Children's Home, which has a section for the mentally defectives is overcrowded and it is difficult to get admission there.

There is a crying need for an institution for the feeble-minded where custodial care can be provided for the low-grade defectives and education in elements of reading, writing, arithmetic and simple vocation can be given to the high-grade feeble-minded.

These latter groups can be made self-supporting with really adequate vocational training.

The training programme of the Child Guidance Clinic.—The Clinic is one of the field work agencies for students of the Tata Institute. They receive their practical training in child guidance at this Clinic. The members of the Clinic staff also give ten lecture demonstration sessions every term to the medical postgraduates appearing for D.C.H. (Diploma in Child Hygiene) and D.Ped (Diploma of Pediatrics) examinations.

Opinion as to the need for additional facilities.—The Clinic staff feel that it would be an advantage to have independent rooms for the Clinic. These rooms should have a one way observation screen so that the trainees can observe the children without disturbing them.

The staff have felt a very keen need for greater understanding of the child on the part of the general public and more especially among those who are closely connected with the child, that is the parents, teachers and guardians. Inadequate understanding is revealed by the parents and guardians in some of the following ways. They are interested in the removal of symptoms such as stuttering, lack of interest in studies etc. for which the child is brought to the Clinic. It is difficult for them to comprehend that these behaviour difficulties are but symptoms of the general maladjustment of the child.

Their typical attitude is "you just cure this problem without bothering about his home life or any other areas of growth". That the child functions as a whole is difficult for them to understand. Another type of misunderstanding revealed by parents is to look upon the child's urge to play

as problem behaviour. "His mind is very much on play", is a common complaint. In order to promote such understanding the members of the staff have participated in a number of outside activities such as the following:

1. Mrs. Indira Renu has been closely associated with the work of Balkanji-Bari, the biggest children's organisation in Bombay.
2. Dr. N. S. Vahia has lectured at medical conferences on psychiatric problems.
3. Dr. Mrs. Kamala Bhoota spoke at the New Educational Fellowship meeting on 'Education of the Mentally Retarded' on 3rd March, 1949. Gave a radio talk on the 'Educational needs of the Mentally Retarded' on June 15, 1949. Together with Mrs. Indira Renu and a student, Mrs. Indu Deshpande, paid a two-day visit to the Pandharpur Children's Home. Many stimulating discussions were held with the Superintendent and staff of the Home. Started a play

centre for young children at Shradhdhanand Ashram. The centre is being run by students of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences under her guidance.

There is still much that needs to be done and much that can be done to better the condition of these maladjusted problem children and to make them acceptable members of society. The vicious circle of poverty, ignorance and unsatisfactory environment is hard to break, but a great deal can be achieved in improving the child's adjustment to society if parents, teachers and any other interested parties co-operate whole-heartedly with the staff of the Child Guidance Clinic and their programme of treatment. Increased contacts with existing child welfare agencies would facilitate greatly the placing of children who need care away from the home, or a type of treatment not available at the clinic itself. Systematic education of the public is an immediate need to arouse general interest in providing ample opportunities for the building of good mental and physical health of our many underprivileged children.

VIII REPORT ON EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR HOSPITALISED CHILDREN

Every child of school going age, whether rich or poor, healthy or ill, should have the privilege of a free education. Our modern educational set-up provides for compulsory primary education only for normal children. Such opportunities are, however, denied to children suffering from chronic ailments and undergoing long-term hospital treatment. As a result most of them not only not grow, but deteriorate intellectually, and some of them develop complexes which render them social misfits for the rest of their lives. This is a tragic spectacle and

a great loss to society. Therefore, it is necessary to adopt some measures to combat this intellectual and emotional degeneration of children caused by absence of parental affection and educational care.

Realising this need for education, the authorities of the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children approached the Tata Institute of Social Sciences a few years ago for help. In response to this request a few of our students went there off and on to teach those children. But this experiment did

not prove satisfactory and the Hospital itself could not employ full time trained teachers.

Later, in order to meet this urgent and much felt need, Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Director of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, evolved a simple scheme with the necessary budget and submitted it to the Government of Bombay in December, 1947. The proposed plan was worked out to satisfy three basic needs of these children, viz., intellectual, emotional and occupational. The programme was conceived on the assumption that children with chronic and long-term illnesses must have some facilities for intellectual instruction, recreation and creative work; that they being deprived of home environment should be looked after with loving kindness; and that these should be enabled to participate, as far as possible, in such activities as will contribute to their joy and interest in life and make their hospitalised existence conducive not only to their physical improvement but also to their mental and social development.

This scheme was novel and of a pioneering nature in this field in India. It presented a peculiar blend of such vital items as academic instruction, art-work, games and sports. Film shows of educational interest were also included in it.

The Government of Bombay approved the scheme in March, 1948, and sanctioned funds to put it into operation under the supervision of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences. As Dr. Kumarappa was out of India, the scheme had to be held up till his return. The Education Section of the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital where children are treated for prolonged illness, such as Tuberculosis and bone-ailments, was started on 1st February, 1949.

For the type of work which this Section undertook, teachers selected should not only be qualified academically but must

also possess the glow of sensitive humanism to appreciate the emotional needs of children. In our country, it is difficult to find specially trained teachers, and especially so far hospitalised children with problems of their own. Nevertheless, after due consideration, Mrs. Vimal Kaikini and Mrs. Vimal Pandya were appointed teachers.

Mrs. Kaikini is a graduate of the Bombay University and has experience of child education. She is in charge of one Ward which consists of 16 children of both sexes. These children, with ages varying from 2 to 14 years, are patients suffering from bone-tuberculosis and are, therefore, compelled to stay in the Hospital for treatment lasting from one to three years. Mrs. Vimal Pandya, a graduate of the Women's University, with ten years experience of teaching was the other teacher appointed. She was put in charge of the Ward consisting of 17 children of ages varying from 3 to 15 years and undergoing treatment for bone deformities, which are corrected by surgery. Mrs. Pandya resigned at the end of five months to join her husband in Baroda. In her place Mrs. Solegaonker, a holder of Diploma in Montessori Training, was appointed from 1st August, 1949.

The equipment for this programme at present consists of school books, story books in different languages, toys, play blocks, school supplies like paper for writing and making albums, wool, coloured papers, pencils, chalks, boards, game materials and necessary furniture. Arrangements are being made to construct special bed desks for the use of bed-ridden patients.

The educational programme is conducted on every working day from 10.30 A.M. to 4 P.M. The teaching of scholastic subjects which include languages (Marathi, Gujarati, Hindi and English) and other school subjects is done in the morning. In the

afternoon, children are taught handicrafts and art-work which include crocheting, knitting, making picture albums, clay-work and painting. The teacher maintains a weekly progress report of each child. The children enjoy handwork more than their daily academic lessons. They have made a variety of articles of which they take considerable interest and pride.

In addition to reading and doing art work, the children have shown great enthusiasm for playing games like snakes and ladders, dominoes, dolls and the like. They make use of attractive story and picture books which are provided for light reading. Also, from time to time, interesting films of educational value are shown to them.

It must be observed that teaching a group of children in hospitals is not an easy matter. Apart from the peculiar situation which the hospital presents, the group that has to be handled is heterogeneous in character. These children vary in age level, educational equipment and family background. Again not all of them speak the same language. There are Hindi, Marathi, Urdu and English speaking children. In view of these circumstances, individual instruction becomes vitally necessary. Further the fact that few of the children can leave the bed also makes individual attention a necessity. A few who can, are given the opportunity to study and work in groups. But for the most part each child is taught as he or she rests in bed. Besides teaching, recreational guidance and other activities are subject to health conditions of the children. If one of the children is to be operated upon or is seriously ill, all others in the Ward are more or less affected and are unable to proceed with their daily programme. Since the environment of sickness has complex and far reaching psychological repercussions

on the group of children, the situation calls for deep understanding and sympathy on the part of the teachers.

A delicate appreciation of this aspect of each child's life becomes indispensable.

In conclusion, it is gratifying to record that this programme has been found to contribute not only to the mental growth and development of the children but also to add a little cheer to these young sufferers whose lives would otherwise be dreary and monotonous. Even within the short period of six months of this experiment, a visitor to these Wards now finds these children happy and energetic. They give evidence of some real interest and purpose in life through their tiny productions. They reveal their happy awareness of their being a part of the greater world that lies about them. It is heartening to witness the enthusiasm of these children when they celebrate festivals like 'Ganpati Puja' and 'Diwali' in the Hospital Wards. This is a significant change promising greater possibilities.

Even though this experiment is very elementary and in its infancy, its value cannot be denied. Such educational programmes should be extended to other hospitals in our country where little ones undergo long-term treatment. I earnestly appeal to the authorities concerned to show greater sympathy for these unfortunate children and provide adequate educational and recreational facilities for their mental and emotional growth.

Finally, I wish to thank Dr. Mrs. Kamala Bhoota for supervising this work and guiding the teachers from time to time. On behalf of the children, I thank the Government of Bombay for their generous financial aid without which this important experiment would not have been possible.

IX U. N. MOVE TO PREVENT CRIME : DR. KUMARAPPA ON ADVISORY BODY

The department of Social Affairs of the United Nations invited Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Director and Professor of Sociology, Tata Institute of Social Sciences and Vice-President of the Indian Conference of Social Work, to serve on a technical body to advise the Secretary-General and the Social Commission in devising and formulating policies and programmes appropriate to the study, on an international basis, of the problems of prevention of crime and treatment of offenders; and international action in the field.

This move was in pursuance of the resolution passed by the Economic and Social Council of the U. N., requesting the Secretary-General to convene, in 1949, a group of internationally recognised experts, selected on an international basis, to act in an honorary capacity as an advisory body to advise him and the Social Commission on the study of the above mentioned subjects.

It was decided that the group should be composed of experts in criminology, sociology, criminal psychiatry, penal law and penitentiary science. Outstanding representatives in this field from North America, South America, Europe

and Asia were invited by the U. N. to serve on this body. The meeting of the group was held at Lake Success, New York, from first to eighth August, 1949.

Dr. Kumarappa served on this advisory body as representative of Asia. The group divided into two sub-committees to study the two subjects. Dr. Kumarappa was a member of the sub-committee which tackled the second subject namely "The International action necessary to prevent crime and punish offenders." The work of this group of international experts has been extensively treated in a report submitted to the Social Commission.

After the meeting of the group Dr. Kumarappa spent few weeks in Washington, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston and Columbus visiting institutions of higher learning offering facilities for advanced training and research in the field of applied social sciences. On his way back to India he attended a meeting of the Executive Committee of the International Conference of Social work, of which he is one of the Vice-Presidents, held, at Geneva, in the middle of September. He returned to India in the first week of October.

A SOCIAL WORKER LOOKS AT V. D.

GAURI R. BANERJEE

Control of venereal diseases is one of the most challenging problems, today, in the programme for furtherance of Social Hygiene. This deadly disease is taking a heavy toll unnoticed by the public. At present, proper diagnosis and treatment is, fortunately, possible and appropriate treatment in time will save the lives of millions of people. The writer, in this article, after giving a detailed account of the measures that should be taken to check V.D., points out the important role of the Social Worker in the treatment.

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One of the most challenging problems with which we are confronted today, in our programme for furtherance of social hygiene, is the control of the venereal diseases. Gonorrhoea and syphilis present one of the most important and challenging of current health problems. Like the Black Plague of the Middle Ages, in England, which took its toll of lives by the hundred thousands, venereal diseases, in the twentieth century, continue to exact, almost, a similar toll.

But they do not kill or maim their victims promptly or in such a way as to attract the attention of the public. The value of camouflage masquerade, under the symptoms of other diseases, is highly exemplified in the life histories of the spirochaete which causes syphilis and gonococcus which produces gonorrhoea.

The effects of those other diseases on the mortality rate are spectacular while the deaths, due to venereal diseases, are hidden in mortality statistics in a manner which tend to make the public unaware of their importance. When we recognise the toll of venereal diseases in such conditions as apoplexy, epilepsy, general debility and organic diseases of the heart, the arteries and other vital organs and add to these the commonly specified manifestations, such as general paresis and tabes dorsalis, they rank with the greatest killers. Venereal diseases have been the cause of many still births, blind and otherwise defective child-

ren, sterility on the part of women and the source of untold mental anguish of the victims and their families, due to broken homes.

Diagnosis and treatment.—Medicine has been able, in the last twenty-five years, to do more in diagnosing and treating venereal diseases, than had been done in all the preceding centuries and specially the discovery of penicillin, during the last war, has facilitated the treatment to an enormous extent. But much practical scientific knowledge would lie on the shelves, of universities and research institutions, unless we make provisions to apply it. The causes of venereal diseases are now known as are also methods for diagnosing the diseases accurately, and for treating them effectively.

Well-established methods are available to physicians, whereby, an infectious case of V. D. can be speedily made non-infectious. But the cost of treatment, of venereal diseases, is high. Ordinarily, the treatment of syphilis and gonorrhoea, involves a time element. Though penicillin treatment takes very short time, it is expensive in India, as the drug is not available, in abundance, and the patient needs medical attendance at the interval of every two or three hours. In other sorts of treatment, the length of time necessary, for adequate care of a case of early stage of V. D., is usually estimated as three years, most of the intensive treatment being in the first year. Continuity

of treatment is essential to secure good results. Hence, the fact that a patient is able to pay the fees for an initial blood test or for a few intravenous injections is of little significance. The really important point, which must be determined, is his ability to pay for and carry through treatment over as long a period as is necessary. In very many cases a patient may not be able to pay for his treatment and, therefore, has to take recourse to free clinics, where the treatment is far from adequate.

Inadequate or insufficient treatment of venereal diseases is certainly a serious detriment to public health. Hence arises the need for making our free clinics and hospitals, either private or governmental, far better equipped for giving adequate treatment than has, so far, been possible. Also their aim should be towards bringing about speedy recovery from the disease, rather than linger on with it by not using modern methods of treatment.

We, however, do not mean that Allopathic system of medicine only should be in practice for the treatment of venereal diseases. In a country like India, with a vast population, it is necessary to supplement the Allopathic system with systems of cheaper and indigenous medicine like the Ayurvedic and Unani. Homeopathic system of medicine, too, needs to be encouraged. Our health departments should encourage research and subsidise and control the manufacture of medicines, in all these systems, and universities should hold examinations, in these branches of medical study, so as to assure the public that the practitioners have attained the proper standard.

Community enterprise.—In this connection it must, however, be borne in mind, that even though drugs like penicillin have

opened up new horizons in the field of V. D. control, a community that seeks to root out a disease with one programme (*i.e.* medical) would be as effective as a contractor, who undertook to build a house with just one tool. The builder needs a lot of tools, and would be puzzled to decide whether the saw is more important than the hammer or whether he needs a shovel more than either. Stamping out V. D. is a broad community enterprise, involving all the community services in existence, whether private or governmental, and also the creation of new agencies. As no disease is completely controlled by treatment alone, we have to have preventive measures to support medical and public health efforts.

The dissemination of accurate information about venereal diseases, through all available channels, is essential. These should include educational programmes by the district health departments for the public, utilising the press, the radio, motion pictures, exhibits, posters, pamphlets, lectures to acquaint people with facts regarding the prevalence of venereal diseases, methods of infection and possibilities of its control. The object of all these informative and educational activities should be to secure public understanding, co-operation and appropriation for the work to be done; to induce everyone exposed or infected to seek advice and treatment and not to resort to quacks; and to bring about the provision of ample facilities, trained personnel and medical supplies to diagnose, treat and follow up all cases and their contacts.

Preventive measures.—In dealing with the preventive aspects, our attention goes to the problem of the prostitute, who is, to a great extent, responsible for the spread of venereal diseases. In the past when not much was known about the nature and causation of venereal diseases, if a

man contracted V. D. from a prostitute, he naturally concluded, that she is the source of infection, and argued that if she was registered and medically examined, at regular intervals, there would be no danger of future infection. Such a person had this view because, he knew nothing of the pathology of V. D. and the nature of the medical examination required to detect such diseases. So attempts were made to control the spread of infection by 'regulating' prostitution.

By the first quarter of the last century 'regulation' laws came into existence, and, consequently, prostitutes were officially registered and houses of ill-fame were licensed by the police and were tolerated in these districts where their 'want was felt'. By medical inspection of prostitutes, usually on twice a week basis, it was felt that the promiscuous intercourse could be made safe. This system was soon adopted by practically all European countries, and later in some parts of India.

In the light of our present knowledge, however, we know that 'regulation' gives a false security to people. At the close of the medical inspection, a prostitute is given a card to certify, that she is not suffering from V. D. The medical examination to be of any use must be a thorough one, involving various tests, which require both money and time. The type of medical examination that prostitutes are subjected to is a superficial one. Also, a prostitute may be declared free of disease in the morning and she may have sex relations with a customer, in the evening, who will infect her. Later, when she will have sex intercourse with another customer, she in turn will infect him. As men are unaffected by the 'regulation', which does not require their medical inspection and

treatment, they are free to infect their wives and other women. Thus 'regulation' meets with failure.

Eradicate prostitution.—In order to control the spread of venereal diseases what we need, today, is not 'regulation', but constant effort to eradicate prostitution. It may be that we shall not be able to eradicate prostitution altogether very soon, yet we may be able to minimise it. Though a prostitute is not the cause of the disease, she is a transmitter of it. Therefore, by minimising prostitution we will be controlling the march of V. D. To combat prostitution we need the force of law, to make it illegal, and intelligent policing to make this law effective.

In various big cities brothel keeping has been declared illegal, but due to the lack of adequate policing, brothel keepers are able to circumvent the law. Watchful policing is required to detect not only the persons responsible for this trade, but also the procurers who run massage parlours, taverns, some Women's Homes and carry on commercialised prostitution in disguise.

These aspects of prostitution are a good deal like the tough and stubborn weeds that grow in every garden. If you let them alone they grow rapidly. It is not enough to dig them up once or even twice. Eternal vigilance is necessary. A brothel can not remain open if the official policy of a city is to enforce the laws which exist there. They should make the operation of such a place a criminal offence, and subject the owner and the proprietor of a brothel to imprisonment. At the same time his property should be confiscated and used in constructive lines for the abatement of a public nuisance.

Also, we need to work towards the rehabilitation* of women rescued from

* See the writer's article "Crusade Against Social Vice", *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, Vol. X, June 1949.

brothels. Then independent prostitutes should be warned, that if by the end of three or four years they do not change their way of life, they will be treated as offenders. This will give them time enough to find other honourable means of livelihood.

Sex offences.—Apart from prostitutes, there are a group of men and women, who are constantly involved in sex offences and, thereby, contract and spread venereal diseases. These people are not only physically ill on account of contracting V. D., but emotionally so, too. Their offences should be regarded as symptoms of their illness.

A person whose sexual activity is greater than the normal, or who meets his sex urges in a way that is detrimental to his own welfare and may lead to imprisonment or loss of respect, is jeopardising his entire future for the sake of momentary pleasure. He may either have a distorted sense of values or an inability to control his impulses or both. Such a person is really sick. So in his own interest, as well as in the interest of the society, he needs treatment.

According to our present system of dealing with crime we merely jail a sex offender. But it does not touch the very core of the problem. It only temporarily removes the offender from our midst. When he has served his sentence and is discharged from prison, he repeats the same behaviour. So we need a law which will authorise a judge to sentence a sex offender to an indeterminate period of incarceration. During this time he needs to be treated by a psychologist, psychiatrist or psychoanalyst, as the case may be, and can go free only when a team of these people decide that he no longer is a sexual problem.

At this stage of our knowledge of psychiatry, psychoanalysis and psychology it is

possible that some sex offenders cannot be cured. They have to be detained, most probably, for the life time. Further research work, however, can be carried on in this line by experimenting on these offenders.

Check the symptom.—While treating sex offenders we are, no doubt, dealing with the symptom that has already been formed. But if we restrict our activities only to this, we are not doing anything to stop the development of the symptom—this anti-social behaviour in other individuals as they grow up. We need to help our youngsters develop in a healthy fashion, so that in their later years they do not end up as sex delinquents.

A child brings with him into the world a reservoir of emotional energy, including sexual energy. This energy needs an outlet. If it has to be repressed, due to the fear of punishment of parents, it may manifest itself in various forms of maladjustment. Again, if this energy is not properly guided, it may result in abnormal sexual behaviour. In a well-adjusted child, this energy is channelled off in other directions, such as in physical activities, hobbies and other intellectual pursuits. If a child has not been excessively thwarted, and has been allowed to feel that it is not wrong to act out some of his impulses within reasonable limits, he does not cling on to them. He moves ahead and finds out various ways of channelizing his primitive sex drives.

Thus the fight against sex offences need to be waged in two directions. We have to treat sex offenders to help them to get well. Also we have to have greater understanding of the dynamics of human behaviour so as to help the child to grow into a healthy adult.

Sex education in schools.—Very often it

is said, that if sex education is imparted to children, in schools, they will not become sex perverts. Sex education is very important, no doubt. But we have to be clear in our minds regarding the contents of this education. Is it just going to be teaching the biology of the sex? That knowledge will be helpful, to a great extent, in removing the ignorance regarding sex matters. To develop, however, a healthy attitude towards sex, many more things must be done. Parental attitude towards sex as a taboo has to be changed. Also, parents need to understand what is the normal or abnormal sex behaviour in a child.

An understanding of the human behaviour should not remain the monopoly of psychologists and psychiatrists. A good bit of it has to permeate the masses. This can be achieved through well-organised adult education movement. Popular literature in those lines have to be produced in vernaculars. Besides, we need to provide various educational and recreational activities to our youngsters to channelize their sexual energy in healthy direction.

Social and emotional problems.—In dealing with the treatment aspect of V. D. it may be said that social and emotional components of venereal diseases play an important part wherever infected men and women seek diagnosis and treatment. With the development of Rapid Treatment Centres, the treatment of V. D. will become speedy. But so long as social and emotional problems involved in diseases and their treatment are not cared for, the penicillin, the services of doctors and nurses and public money invested into medical treatment are to some extent wasted.

Illness is always fraught with some emotional component and it is evident that it will be accentuated with a socially un-

acceptable illness. In a V. D. clinic we find that the reactions to the diagnosis may range from disbelief and refusal to accept it to terror and mental breakdown. Some patients feel that they have lost their manhood or womanhood for ever and cannot have children any more. Others are frightened that their spouses may not love them. Some feel that life itself is being threatened and they may not ever be able to resume the normal activities of life.

One of the greatest difficulties of these patients is their inability to speak of their trouble or the treatment or the discomfort because of the stigma which would be cast upon them. So they are thrown back upon themselves. Some patients are able to handle their difficulties to a certain extent all by themselves, while others break down under fear and tension. However ridiculous these fears may seem to us, they are very real to patients. When they are released from their emotional tension by providing them an opportunity to express their partially repressed feelings to somebody who understands or accepts them non-judgementally, patients may be helped to relieve their anxieties and get a sense of support which increases their ability to act upon their problem.

Need for carefully planned interview.—A carefully planned interview, in most instances helps patients to give up their irrational attitude. For illustration, a young man of thirty-two came to the V. D. department of a general hospital. After the physician had examined him he asked the patient, "How did you get the disease"? The patient kept silent. He was, however, all the time biting his lips and there were drops of perspiration on his forehead. The doctor repeated the question. The patient replied in a loud tone, "Akhir Jawani Hai" (i.e. after all it is youth). The physician

felt that the man led an immoral life and, therefore, the best way to bring him round was to impress upon him the sad consequences of such a life and irregular clinic attendance. The patient was given some medicine and was asked to return to the outpatient department on a particular date. The patient did not come back for a month.

The physician was interested in the case and he referred it to the social worker attached to the hospital. She wrote a letter to the patient telling him that the hospital was interested in him and that she would be glad to discuss certain matters with him if he came to her office. Also, if he preferred her going to his place she would do that too. The patient came to see the worker. She did not talk about the seriousness of the disease. Nor did she try to frighten him by saying that already he had not taken treatment for a month and the disease process might have advanced.

A patient's story.—Through scientific method of case work she encouraged the person to talk out what he had felt when the doctor told him about the diagnosis. He gradually came out with the story that twelve years ago he was married to a girl much against his wishes. He had started visiting the house of ill-fame after that. Four years after the marriage the wife died, and he remarried three years later. He was fond of the second wife and felt depressed because he did not have children. His second wife had given birth to two still-born babies. The worker in the course of the interview gathered the patient was keen to have a child and unconsciously assured himself by thinking that he was youthful and could have babies. His remark "Akhir Jawani Hai" seems to be an outcome of that feeling. It was also noticed that the

patient felt guilty about his sex promiscuity and allayed it by saying that he had not lost his youthful vigour. The physician had not understood the full significance of the patient's remark and by emphasising the serious consequences of the disease he aggravated the guilty feeling and the patient did not return.

The worker helped the patient to talk out his feelings and then gradually enabled him to see that the treatment was going to help him in the area that seemed most vital to him. The patient returned for treatment and later brought his wife, too, for the same. We see then that the reactions of patients, however psychoneurotic they may seem to us, are in reality a reaction to some conflict or fear motivated largely by subconscious psychological processes of which the patients are unaware. Planning an interview in such a way as to bring to light significant factors and then handling them is a service which can be rendered by a trained social worker.

Role of Social worker.—After helping the patient to accept his diagnosis and medical recommendations, a social worker needs to work with his family sometimes. When a patient comes to know about his disease and in accordance with medical recommendations refrains from sex relations with his wife, the later may feel rejected and start thinking that her spouse has 'affairs' elsewhere. Or the wife may look down upon the husband on account of his socially unacceptable disease, when she comes to know about it. She finds it too difficult to pardon her husband. If she contracts V. D. from him she bears still more antagonistic feelings towards him. In case a wife is found to be suffering from venereal diseases and the husband is immune from it, she is looked down upon. Very often she is relegated to fallen woman-

hood and she passes through a terrible mental agony. A social worker has to give her emotional support to both the husband and the wife and constantly ease out the tension so that the couple can adjust better and lead a fuller and happier life.

In case of economic difficulties it remains for the social worker to bring the needy patient into contact with those outside social agencies which exist to relieve his economic needs. These may be relatives, voluntary charities or semi-government agencies.

Apart from the economic field, the social worker has to play an important part in changing the attitude of the family members towards the victim of venereal diseases, so that his security and integrity are not endangered. She is a great help in the follow-up of a case, so that patients have a chance of complete recovery and less fear of relapse, which leads to the success of a public health programme.

Homeless and destitute girls and adolescent boys.—Besides, many girls that come to V. D. clinics for treatment are homeless and destitutes. Quite a number of them are friendless. Some of them come from broken and unhappy homes having no job or no one to go to in their trouble. To get such patients cured and throw them back to their old environment, because they lacked friends, home or work seems both cruel and most expensive. They are exposed to fresh infections. It is not only the medical aspect of the disease that is important but also its social aspects need attention. Such girls need very often long time treatment and the length becomes unbearable with no one in whom they can confide. Also there is need for planning with them for their future so that after they are cured they do not expose themselves to further infection.

Very much the same is the case with adolescent boys, who leave their own home for a big city, either on account of financial stress or out of spirit of adventure or both. They are often employed as domestic servants or they work in some small shops. They sleep on footpaths and at night are sometimes the victims of the sexual lust of adults or at other times they indulge in sex play with children of their own age. Consequently, they become the victims of venereal diseases. Along with medical treatment by physicians these children need social treatment at the hands of a social worker who can plan with them for a better and healthy way of life. She is in a position to find out what has led to this delinquent behaviour of a boy and thus can understand his social and emotional problems and help him towards better adjustment.

Social worker and V. D. clinics.—All these tend to show the need for having social workers attached to V. D. clinics. However, there have been arguments against the services of a social worker in these clinics. Some people feel that that will involve extra expenditure on the part of clinics and as these clinics are meant for free patients they do not have sufficient income to employ social workers. Others misunderstand the functions of a social worker and say that the clinic health visitors can do following-up of defaulters and that that is the most important part in a V. D. control programme.

It is true that a health visitor can do a good job in following-up defaulters. Follow-up, however, is only half the picture. Social and emotional planning with patients is equally important without which the treatment may remain incomplete or end up in exposure to fresh infections. A trained social worker has professional training in a school of social work in handling social and emotional components of illness and its care

in a scientific manner. Therefore, there is the need for having a member of this profession in the team so far comprised of the doctor, the nurse and the health visitor for combating venereal diseases.

Treatment programme.—In the treatment programme of the venereal diseases the timing of clinics is very important. If a man is a daily wage earner it is pretty hard for him sometimes to come regularly to the clinic. He has to come there early, stand in a queue till his turn comes for medical examination or an injection. It takes about two to three hours a day. As the clinics are run at day time a wage earner has to lose part of his wages when he comes for treatment. It has been seen that as soon as acute symptoms disappear the patient does not want to lose any more wages and does not come to the clinic. A woman patient finds it hard sometimes to attend the clinic regularly due to lack of time, unsuitability of clinic hours (she has to do the cooking for the family at noon) and on account of not having anybody at home to take care of the children in her absence.

To meet the needs of the patient it would be worthwhile to have double shifts in V. D. clinics (*i.e.* morning and evening). Also there is need for mobile medical units. These units can give treatment to patients at home—patients that are too ill to come to the V. D. outdoor department regularly, mothers with small children, persons who do not have a V. D. clinic near their abode etc.

In this connection it may be mentioned that we have to educate people and clear up the harmful fallacy which still lingers in the mind of the public regarding clinic attendance of V. D. patients. Very often people think that a woman patient in such a clinic is necessarily a prostitute and that

she does not wish to lead any other sort of life and, therefore, there is nothing further to be done.

Apart from professional prostitutes there is a large number of married women coming to the clinic who are innocently infected by their husbands. There are children suffering from V. D., infected accidentally or by criminal assault, or suffering from inherited or congenital syphilis. A wrong attitude of the public discourages patients from taking timely aid from the clinic for they are afraid of being regarded as persons of loose character.

A word to Doctors.—Not only the lay public but our general medical practitioners also need to change their outlook regarding V. D. It has very often been noted that when the examination, for example, of a particular pregnant mother has to be done, if she is uneducated and poor, our doctors get serological tests done (if they are interested in them). They suspect V. D. amongst this class of patients. But if the woman is a little educated or rich and comes from a so-called 'respectable family' they do not suspect any venereal disease and do not have these tests. As a result a large number of pregnant mothers, who come to prenatal clinics or go to private doctors, do not have V. D. tests during their pregnancy. Consequently, if they have V. D. they remain untreated and their children get the infection. It seems very important that all pregnant mothers, who come to doctors, should have blood tests for V. D. and be treated accordingly. It is absurd to think that rich or literate people are a class by themselves and do not have V. D. If all pregnant mothers have blood tests it will be a big step towards case finding. If a mother has V. D. the source can be traced through her and she as well as the contacts can

be treated. Also a number of cases of congenital V. D. can be avoided this way.

In the end, it might be said that V. D. is but one of the components of a larger problem. Economic insecurity, lack of adequate education, broken homes, poor housing, inadequate social services are some of the other components of that larger problem. Organised groups of social workers, medical and public health persons and responsible citizens should interest themselves in the total problem. They need to integrate their facilities for the early recognition and

treatment of wayward minors, the provision of wholesome recreational outlets, proper sex education, treatment of venereal diseases and such other projects. It would be helpful, therefore, if in each district, or in a region composed of a few districts there were established a council of representatives of all the major social service agencies with the aim of organising the region into a living force for conserving desirable values in community life as well as for preventing the rise and spread of anti-social behaviour and stamping out the breeding spots of delinquency and diseases.

SCHOOLS AND SOCIAL WORK

M. VASUDEVA MOORTHY

The School occupies an important place in the life of a nation. It has become the fashion, today, for leaders and officials to call upon Schools and Students to do Social Work. This, says Dr. Moorthy, is being done without understanding the importance of Social Work and before inquiring whether the Schools are properly equipped to do the work. Social Work, as he points out, is a scientific activity and there are many limitations on Schools. The writer, in this first part of the article based on his lectures to the Students of Vidyabhavan, Udaipur, describes the handicaps from which our Schools suffer and stresses the need for equipping them before enlisting their services for Social Work.

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In the history of social work, the institution of the School marks a distinctive achievement. The Family is, without doubt, logically anterior to the school; but the School, more than the Family, functionally integrates, in a greater measure, the wider experiences of mankind. Here in the school are lasting friendships made. In its halls is knowledge garnered. Traditions are tested in the fire of logic. The first principles are learnt here without bias. In the Schools' precincts, playlife assumes its significance. It is in the school that the child has really the vision of the larger world.

Important role of School.—The child is the epitome of the family; and since children from various families meet in the School, it may be said that the School is the meeting place of neighbourhoods. Also, to the child who is the future citizen, knowledge is imparted in the School; and knowledge represents the continuity of human thinking through the ages. Knowledge in the several fields is not only preserved but carried forward through the School. Therefore, the School symbolizes the fruitful confluence of the streams of centuries.

Performing these manifold functions it is clear that the School plays a very important role in the building up of the nation, a role equal to, if not greater than, that played by the Family. Historically speaking,

the Family, in early times, performed most of the functions now covered by the school; and it continues still to carry on, at least to some extent, several of the activities properly belonging to the School. Thus, learning and play activities of the child are initiated and supervised by the parents or guardians at home. By inviting and entertaining guests as well as visiting friends and neighbours, the Family introduces the child to other children and people. Like the School, the Family offers several situations in which the character of the child is moulded. It is needless to mention the supervisory and disciplinarian role assumed by the Family in a hundred circumstances in the life of the child.

In these instances, the Family complements, but by no means duplicates, the functions of the School. The Family and the School have to work in close co-operation in several fields; otherwise one will be undoing the good work of the other. It is in the absence of this co-operation between these two important primary institutions that several serious social problems arise pressing on the attention of the Social Worker. The School has its own specific social problems; but these are aggravated, and many more are added, by other institutions not properly fulfilling the functions for which they exist and also by their not fully co-operating with the activities of the School. In consequence,

the Schools have to bear an increasing burden of responsibilities. They are called upon to meet the problems created by the community and the families. More often the community's problems become the Schools' problems, rather than the Schools' problems becoming the community's problems. In a well-organised community the School flourishes and functions very efficiently; in an ill-organised one, its life is strained and is bound to languish. The School is the pulse of the community betraying every moment, the latter's vitality or sickness.

Responsibilities of School.—As Society has grown more and more complex, the responsibilities of the School have become commensurate. While once upon a time the families and castes and guilds imparted technical education to their members, to-day several specialised schools exist to train citizens in arts and crafts. The knowledge communicated to the children in Schools is today so varied, laborious and systematic that families are no longer adequate to do the same job which they once did.

Child care is now becoming almost a craft; and it is doubtful if parents of the common run are any longer capable of bringing up children as in scientifically conducted nurseries of today. More, in our residential schools, sometimes situated in secluded and sylvan surroundings, the children eat, bathe, sleep, play, learn, and are also doctored in the schools and their attached dormitories and hospitals. Nearly entirely, the family environment is reproduced; and children go to the houses of their parents to get reacquainted with them during vacation time or parents visit their children to study their progress at school. In these instances one finds that the School is becoming quite a rival to the Family. Such residential Schools are, indeed, rare;

but according to the indications of our times, they are on the increase.

And it is not wild speculation to surmise that there may come a period in our history when, due to transformation in the structure of the institution of the School and increase in the field of its activity, the Family will have extremely limited, though not unimportant, functions to perform. It is difficult to say if the families are changing because the schools are changing; or if the schools are changing because the families are changing. The relation between the two, however, is very subtle and intimate and potent of tremendous possibilities for the entire Society.

In view of the unique position the School occupies in Society, it is but natural that people look to it for guidance and support in all times and especially in times of distress. Some of the finest intellects in Science, Philosophy, Politics and Arts are drawn from the Schools. Along with the other liberal professions, the Schools have played a dominant and outstanding part in shaping social history. They are known to be repositories of Knowledge. Therefore, it is nothing surprising that even today in India there is a call on the schools for social service.

Even our politicians are proclaiming from the platform and the press that students should engage themselves in social work and this cry is repeated in every quarter. Committees have also been formed to deliberate on how students' services could be enlisted for social work. And it is even being debated, publicly and privately, if compulsory social service by students as well as teachers should be introduced in the schools.

In the meanwhile, one hears leaders issuing clarion appeals and siren calls to

students and schools to help fight illiteracy and poverty, to grow more food, to consume less food, to increase health of the nation and so on *ad infinitum*. These appeals seem to have no reference to the students' or the schools' qualifications to do the particular types of social service required by them, and assumes that anybody and everybody, especially students, should do social service and that they have the ability to do it.

Training for social work.—These appeals and trends indicate firstly the general lack of appreciation that social work is a scientific process which can be initiated and worked by properly trained men. The belief that any one can do social work any time is wholly wrong and is bound to aggravate problems rather than solve them. Secondly, they show that social problems are either increasing or that we are beginning to take greater and greater cognizance of them. Thirdly, they point to the dismal fact that we do not have adequate number of social workers; in consequence of which there is a frantic search for Social Workers in all quarters. Fourthly, they suggest that there is a popular belief that social work qualification is desirable on the part of our students and teachers and that, if possible, it should be made compulsory on them.

There can be no doubt as to the point that social work qualification is desirable in every citizen and much more so in the students and teachers. To have the spirit of social service and possess the necessary training for social work are, indeed, very admirable attainments for any persons; as much as the possession of an art, or science or craft or of any socially desirable trait or virtue is an asset to the character and abilities of an individual. This is a non-controversial proposition. But one is

not on equally sure grounds when he meets the argument that Social Work should be made compulsory on students and teachers, and be treated as a part of the curricular activities.

Social Work as a subject is not on the same footing as Mathematics, Physics or even History or Literature is. These, or their branches are usually met within the compulsory curricular studies in Schools and Colleges; and no reasonable arguments are available for the incorporation of Social Work in the curriculum. Indeed, as the child advances, less and less subjects are given and it is gradually introduced to a chosen group of specialised branches of learning. At the stage of specialization where the selection of subjects is optional, it is not repugnant to offer courses on social work and even make some type of practical social work a necessary part of field work training. But this specialization is optional and not compulsory.

Whether our Schools and Colleges are at present suitably equipped for offering social work courses and, if not, whether they should be so equipped is beside the field of our discussion. The main point is that even after the introduction of Social Work as a branch of specialization at a more advanced stage of a student's career, it still remains an optional subject; and practical social work will be carried on by a few who select to do so and *that too in fulfilment of their field work requirement*.

This situation does not meet the clamorous and urgent need of our country for the services of social workers. In no country in the world, except, perhaps Russia where anything may happen, is Social Work included in the basic curriculum of either Schools or Colleges. It is absurd to make it compulsory. It is as

preposterous as beating any one to sing or as dangerous as forcing untrained persons to treat sick people! It must be recognized that there are certain services for which people cannot be conscripted; and social work is one of them.

Fields of social work for schools.—By the above arguments it should by no means be supposed that Schools are unfit to undertake social work activity of any kind. Far from it. All that is here intended to show is that: (1) Social Work is a scientific activity which has its attitudes, philosophies and techniques behind it and these have to be learnt by a period of training; (2) it is unwise to introduce Practical Social Work as a compulsory course in Schools; (3) it may be introduced as an optional specialized division in the colleges when they are adequately equipped for it; and (4) the scope of social work by students is extremely limited.

The types and fields of social work by schools and colleges are strictly determined by their resources; and it is in terms of these that responsibilities and functions should be assigned to them. Therefore, before discussing what the schools can and can not do, let us assess their resources and also mention the limitations.

The resources of the schools and colleges as the case may be, could be divided into about eight factors: (1) the teachers; (2) the students; (3) the leisure time available; (4) the buildings of the schools; (5) the library; (6) the playground and the play-equipment including materials for indoor and outdoor use; (7) the theatre and equipment for dramatic performance; (8) any other special equipment for testing and experimenting like the clinic, laboratory etc.

While these are the resources, four important limitations amongst others, may

be mentioned: (1) The schools (and also the colleges) have no legislative powers; (2) they do not have ample funds to spare; (3) they do not have enough personnel and regular workers to go out for social work or to administer services; and (4) they do not have in general the qualification to administer certain specialised services like the medical or psychiatric ones. In the light of these resources and limitations one has to study the problem of social work by the schools.

Limitations.—Examining the limitations first, it is obvious that since the schools are not legislative bodies, they have no power to introduce a change or eradicate an evil by the stroke of the pen even if they want to do so. Prostitution could be abolished and beggary penalized. Several forms of gambling and cruel games could be banned. Education could be made an absolutely free, State service and curriculum satisfactorily changed. Penal reforms could be brought into immediate effect and economic burdens and advantages more equitably distributed. Indeed, all the Platonic theories and Utopian projects which the academicians have been putting forth since the birth of thought could be concretized if only schools had the authority to do it. But rightly or wrongly legislation is now universally recognised to be a State function; and students and teachers have no more rights and powers than other citizens have.

In absence of authority to legislate, the schools can only criticize and suggest. This, any citizen can do and is not a special privilege of students and teachers. But in this regard the schools and other recognized academic bodies do often indirectly influence legislation. For these are frequently consulted by legislators on important issues of State and Social matters.

The Schools, and especially colleges, contain several specialists in medical and public health affairs, economic and financial problems, legal and sociological fields and whenever possible they advise the Government either by sitting on the committees, or by special writing or reporting. Such advice is very much valued by the Government and sometimes even acted upon.

In the West where the universities are well-developed, properly equipped and maintain high standards of research, the State associates teachers and even senior students in important functions in a variety of fields. The universities there exercise a tremendous influence on the executives and the legislatures. They not only help in advancing science and industry but also contribute in developing healthy social legislation. While in India teachers and students were once most venerated they today have less social recognition. But now the State is beginning to realise the value of universities and hence the teachers are allowed to play a greater role in legislative planning. This is a very happy trend. It augurs well for the universities and society. This process, if continued, may lead to the expansion of the universities' powers and responsibilities and culminate in a very desirable transformation of their structure.

How schools can educate public on social problems.—In a non-official way, too, the schools and colleges do influence legislation by creating public opinion either in favour of, or against a proposed measure. This is usually done through extension lectures by qualified professors. Extension lectures are on specific subjects; and the members of the general community are invited to attend these. Sometimes Visiting Professors from other colleges and also non-university

men participate in giving these lectures. Great interest is aroused and public attention focussed on aspects of problems according to the emphasis and the ability of the speakers.

The universities or colleges inaugurating these lectures help in presenting and interpreting to the public complex issues in perspective. Since the speakers are authorities on the subjects they cover, their opinions and interpretations carry much weight and thus shape public thinking and feeling in regard to some of the most important topics of the day. In these activities it is important to note that the teachers and the school or college buildings become very serviceable. It is in the best interests of the community that the two resources of the academic bodies are utilized in this way.

Yet one more method of educating the public and canalizing their feelings for social action is by the social research which schools and colleges conduct from time to time. For various reasons very few persons know what social problems exist in the community, the intensity of each one and the relation of one to another, their origin and possible remedies. Social research brings to light several of the problems, and enables the public to see specific issues in relevant contexts. This helps in building public opinion with reference to any one problem of the community.

Thus, for instance, prostitution may be present in the community for a long time without many persons being aware of it. Now, if capable investigators make a survey of the problem and make their findings available to the public, then the members of the community have an opportunity of becoming aware of this problem, its extent and far reaching social implications like the spread of venereal disease,

demoralising effect on young men, exploitation of girls etc. The community's conscience could be roused by such social research and the energies of the public could be mobilized for bringing about salutary legislation to meet the situation.

Similar social research studies could be undertaken on Housing and Congestion, Beggary, Child-labour, Gambling, the Superannuated, Delinquency, Group-prejudices, Insanity, Roadside deaths, Unemployment, Pauperism, Alcoholism, Accidents and a hundred other problems of our Society which need to be dragged to the light of day. Only when people become aware of the facts of any issue, is there any likelihood of their getting together to take proper action.

Research on Social Problems.—The part which schools and colleges can play in thus focussing public attention by research work on social problems is immense. Such research is itself a type of valuable social work. In view of the human resources and the library and the leisure time available to them, the teaching bodies are best suited to educate the public through lectures and research. This is a legitimate function of the School and the college; and the community has a right to expect of them to render this service.

In England and the United States of America, the teaching bodies have greatly influenced social action through extension lectures and social research. In the latter part of the last century social research was especially developed in the form of the survey method which was used as the basis of social action. A large part of social legislation of the period was influenced by such studies and surveys conducted by universities and teaching bodies. The methods of social research have since been

greatly improved; and training in this field is now accepted as a basic qualification for social work. The importance of research for social education, social action and legislation is now so far recognised that Governments and even private bodies like clubs and unions and churches have their own research personnel and bureaus, each conducting its own independent studies and surveys.

In India social research is still in its infancy; but it is receiving some attention not only in the teaching bodies but also in various government departments and private agencies. But yet the value of researches and surveys to social work is not so widely recognised as it should be. Hence in schools and colleges the place given to social research is not satisfactory though the situation is better than what it was about a decade back. There are very few universities which provide for specialization opportunities in social research and fewer colleges still engaging in research activities; while in schools there is absence of interest in the field.

If one takes a survey of social research studies by our schools and colleges for the last twenty years and traces their influence on public opinion and social legislation, the woeful dearth of such literature and the consequent lack of public awareness of problems will be revealed. Also the university extension service activities have not been satisfactory. In these respects it must be confessed that our teaching bodies have not properly availed themselves of their resources and all these years they have wasted their leisure time, keeping idle the library and building facilities.

The students and teachers have more leisure time at their disposal than those engaged in many other occupations. The colleges certainly have about four months

vacation per year excluding occasional holidays. After the advent of the National Government there is a tendency to curtail vacation periods for the teaching profession. This is mainly due to the reason that, in general, the students and teachers have not properly used the leisure given to them. They have holidayed too much! Moreover, the schools engage themselves in the delightful occupation of learning. The profession is congenial to the development of personality and the realization of the soul. Therefore, the academic institutions afford every opportunity for useful leisure time activity which could be directed for public good. But since the schools and colleges have not used their leisure time to public advantage, it does not follow that the best remedy is to take away their leisure. This is illogical besides being harmful in the long run.

The teaching bodies should be made to develop a more dynamic and desirable programme of activity; and the field of social research and the extension service system offer considerable scope for improvement. Since social research not only promotes general understanding of social problems but also constitutes a basic training for social work, its advancement should be the prime concern of those in charge of social education.

Schools need money for social work.—Another limitation which handicaps the undertaking of social work by the schools is their lack of finance. Social work needs money. Since the schools are not rich, they cannot initiate activities which entail expenditure. They cannot pay old age pensions, nor build shelters for the destitute, nor construct hospitals—activities which are rightly held to belong to the State and not to the schools.

Our schools are extremely poor. They do not have enough funds to run even their regular curricular activities. Some cannot pay proper salaries to their teachers; who consequently live in slums and are themselves in urgent need of social service. The schools are ill-equipped with furniture and libraries. They do not have their own buildings. In several places in our country schools are non-existent. It appears comic to appeal to these languishing and non-existent nothings to do social work; while the only species of social work these poor ghosts can do is to help themselves not to die away soon. This lack of funds creates a most depressing situation and saps the energy and initiative of both the teachers and students.

Usually the appeal for social work comes ringing and resounding from the mouths of well-to-do persons. Our leaders and legislators who invite the students and teachers to do social work do not know what dismal and poverty stricken lives our teachers and students lead. Poverty works in a vicious circle, lowering morale and efficiency which circumstance introduces poverty in turn. The teachers and students not only not have enough enthusiasm but proper equipment for several types of social work is lacking in our schools. Thus, for instance, playground and play equipment are good resources which could be used for school as well as community purposes. But since many of our schools do not have playgrounds especially in big cities and adequate play material to work their programme, it could be easily understood how they cannot render much social work in this regard.

But, it is true that there are several indigenous games which do not need any finance, and these could be organised for community welfare purposes in towns and

villages. While this should most certainly be done, it should also be kept in mind that schools which can not afford to have playgrounds and play equipments will surely have matters more urgent than the organisation of costless indigenous games for the behoof of the community. Limited funds of schools not only circumscribe their scope of activity in the field of sports but affect their usefulness in a score of other spheres.

Any extra curricular activity needs at least some small amount of money. If the students have to be taken out into the villages for work, transport, food and incidental expenses have to be met. If an exhibition has to be got up, payments have to be made for collecting and preparing and moving exhibits as also for many sundry services. If one thinks of inaugurating a mobile library, he faces the problem of endowing the school with a reasonably good library and then there is the issue of where to get the wagon to both carry and keep the books. Thus there are unending troubles which poor schools only know when they are called upon to perform social service.

It may be argued that Government or the community could pay for any expenses incurred by the Schools in the course of their extra-curricular social work activities. This appears to be a munificent offer; but the problem is not so simple. It is cruel to ask the poor staff of poor schools to do any social service. If any of the community's money is available at all it should first and foremost be utilized for improving the conditions of ill-equipped schools.

Inadequacy of Staff for Social Work.—

Another important condition limiting the scope of social work by the schools is the one that schools do not have adequate staff

and regular workers who could go out and do the social work for a satisfactory length of time. Brief, spasmodic and sporadic type of social work activity is useless. A worthwhile programme needs co-ordinated, continuous and cumulative efforts of the social worker. Our schools which are usually inadequately staffed, and more so nowadays, can ill-afford to spare any member for engaging himself in practical social work. Amongst the students who will be mostly volunteers, it will be difficult to secure regular workers. Moreover, the schools are like rivers; as waters do, fresh scholars come and go. This necessitates frequent change as far as student personnel is concerned, introducing problems of adjustment, experience, training, etc. Since schools (and colleges too) can make their services available only part-time, social work activities needing continuous service are ruled out as impracticable for them. Social work in several cases needs follow up service. It is a mistake to indulge in some form of so-called social work for a short time and imagine that the work is done, and the problem solved. This is really what is happening in a great part of adult education programmes and literacy campaigns and Village Social Work.

The adults become literate in a short time and no sooner the "Social Workers" go home, their adult students lapse into blissful illiteracy. Similarly in village social work, undertaken by part time honorary workers, the entire village is one day tremendously shaken and roused to desirable activities which promise to make a heaven of hell; and a week after the social worker has passed, one again witnesses the same old activities which were making a hell of heaven. Such unstable periodic social work which fails to inspire and create leadership is not worthwhile engaging in.

This does not mean that schools cannot engage themselves in literacy and adult education work. Indeed, here, if in any sphere, have the schools an opportunity of rendering social service. The criticism is levelled only against the lightning nature of adult education and literacy programmes as also on the haphazard methods of rural social work. Adult education and rural social work are fields which need special social group work techniques and laborious attention.

The social workers should be properly trained before they are sent out to do any work of this kind. It should be remembered that in social work, continuation of the self-help process started in the client is more important than the momentary kindling of interest. Ability to inculcate this principle of self-integration is the test of the social worker; and it underlies all types of social work activities. Wherever this is absent in the social worker the clientele exhibit tendencies of recession and regression neutralising any work done so far. Therefore, one has to be careful in training social workers and assigning responsibilities to them.

Specialised Social Services.—Again, schools do not have qualified personnel to administer certain specialised services. Any type of professional social service is beyond the capacity of the schools to undertake. Thus medical and psychiatric and legal social services are outside the schools' purview. Nor can the schools do much with regard to the problems of the blind, the crippled and the deaf-mute whose training and care constitute a distinct science and profession. But even to these handicapped persons the schools can render some little help in the form of imparting essential knowledge through regular channels, as far as this is possible in each case.

It is the duty of the State to meet these several problems by providing special institutions instead of calling on schools to undertake additional responsibilities which will eventually strain their resources and lead to their inefficiency. Every institution exists to perform a special function or a set of functions. These only can it execute appropriately.

A school is a specialised institution with well-defined functions. If it is saddled with work which properly should be performed by other institutions, neither the work done will be satisfactory nor the proper work of the school be carried out well. Both ways it is hurtful. Whenever we hear the cry of social work by the schools uttered by our legislators, it appears to us that incompetent officers of the State, instead of creating new institutions and agencies to meet specific problems, either ignorantly divert the public's attention, or cunningly shirk responsibility.

With reference to the resources and limitations of the schools and also colleges it may now be seen that it shows bad policy and poor understanding to expect of schools to render regular or substantial social work in almost a wide variety of fields. It should be appreciated that students and teachers can neither grow more food nor consume less food. The Social Work which schools will engage in, should be commensurate with their resources. With the help of properly trained workers the schools can and should eradicate illiteracy. The extension lectures and study services of the colleges and schools should help mould public opinion and spread knowledge to a wider circle of the community. Our schools and colleges should engage more and more in social research activity; and new divisions and bureaus for the purpose should be insti-

tuted wherever they do not exist in our teaching bodies. The school buildings could be used for several activities touching community welfare like, museums, exhibitions, social gatherings, dramatics, seminars, conferences etc.

In olden times the village school symbolized the unity and culture of the community. Every social event was inaugurated under its auspices. Quarrells were settled and wounds healed in its precincts. Democracy was learnt under its shadows. Each social change received its approbation or reprobation from the school. Though the schools have somewhat changed in their structure and functions, it is good for them to recover as much as possible their ancient role of chief co-ordinator of the community's life.

Numerous channels of social work.—It is impossible in this place to set forth how each resource of the school or the college should be utilized for special service. The possibility of harnessing the available resources in response to the peculiar needs of the community depends on the understanding, sympathy and constructive imagination of the social work leader. Each situation has its own needs. A set of resources could always be organised to serve the increasing purpose of life.

As an instance in point may be mentioned a new experiment in social work initiated and planned about six months back by Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Director of the Tata Institute. Observing the pitiable spectacle of children who were hospitalized for long periods due to bodily ailments Dr. Kumarappa felt that young ones thus tied to the beds and living in the hospital shut out from the larger world, would develop serious complexes. Therefore, in order to help them grow into normal human

beings despite their disabilities, he conceived of a programme of work, study and play for the children. A few students of the Tata Institute who were trained in the techniques of educating and playing with hospitalized children were regularly sent out to associate with the young patients, teach them arts and crafts, play with them and otherwise make their lives interesting and worthwhile. The experiment which was conducted with the approval and financial assistance of the Government of Bombay proved a very hopeful success, as was evidenced in the happy lives of the children. This illustration shows that for those who are looking out for opportunities of doing a good turn, occasions always present themselves.

The scout and the camp movements offer admirable channels for social work by the schools. Especially the various types of camps could be planned and led by schools and colleges for the benefit of the members of the community. Fruitful contacts with village folk could be established through these. Once contacts are brought about it should be fostered by worthwhile and continuous programmes like hobbies, discussions, crafts, arts, play, etc. In these camps organised and led by schools, non-school folk should be associated in a greater and greater measure.

Help School to do social work.—Social Work is twice blessed. It blesses the social worker as well as the client for whose benefit work is directed. The Social Worker improves his own personality by taking to various forms of activity as a leader. Social work thus builds character. That is why the scout movement and other activities which have social service as their objective should have an important place in the schools and colleges. The boy learning to do social work comes to acquire in an en-

larging measure sympathy, duty, self-reliance, love, truth and other ennobling virtues which truly makes life beautiful. In this lies the value of social work by schools. Moreover, if the community helps the school, the capacity of the school to help the community will be increased. In

India we have not yet properly built our schools. Our task should be directed towards establishing them on a sounder footing, before indulging in talks of social work by the schools. There is presently more need for social work in schools rather than social work by the schools.

EXPERIMENT IN TRIBAL LIFE

D. N. MAJUMDAR

The tribal population which is scattered all over India, and is known by different names, is a section of sadly neglected children of God. In this article, which is based on his personal observations, the writer gives an account of the life of the tribals in Dudhi, U.P., describing the picture of the various phases of their life and the disintegration which later set-in due to the inroads made by avaricious contractors, money lenders and merchants. What happened in Dudhi could be truly applied to tribal areas through out the country. Consequently, the writer makes a plea for adopting ameliorative measures in order to make the life of the tribal population worthwhile.

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India has a large tribal population to the tune of 25 to 30 millions. The figures of tribal strength, in the various Provinces and States of the Indian Union, are far from reliable. The difficulty of enumerating the tribal people living in the hills and fastnesses where they find their asylum even to-day, is indeed great, and the nature of the Indian Census organization, its voluntary character, and the untrained personnel who collect the primary data, all combine to confuse enumeration.

The tribal people, to-day, are scattered over wide areas, and the same tribe is split up into sections, adopting different appellations or on the basis of cultural levels, so that in one Province, a tribe may be enumerated as 'aboriginal', in another Province it may be given the status of a 'caste' and enumerated as such. The tribal labour settled in the tea gardens are described as 'coolie' castes and the criminal Banjaras are Sugalis in Madras and Kanjars in another part of the country. The Saoras are enumerated as a tribe, in the Agency tracts in Orissa, and are the cultivating Sahariyas in the Eastern States, and as far north as the Uttara Pradesh. The Gonds are Raj Gonds, Rajhwars, Majhwars, Marias, Murias and the Bhil is a generic name which includes several racial elements. The Waghers of Kathiawar are Hindus and Muslims, so also many of the criminal tribes of Northern India.

The Santhals of Bengal and those who still cling to their original moorings, or the Oraons of the Ranchi district in Bihar and the Malo or Malpaharia of the Rajmahal hills, own the same racial traits but are regarded as different on cultural grounds.

The Census literature which refers to tribal life and culture is no guide to the racial affiliation or cultural status of the tribes. What Grigson has said about the inaccuracy of the Hyderabad Census Reports applies more or less to all the publications of the Census, in respect of their descriptive accounts of tribes and castes, or even in the recorded figures and nomenclature of the tribes.

The trends of tribal demography in India during the first half of the present century have been as follow:

(1) Some tribes are on evil days, and are rapidly thinning out, as for example, the Korwas of the U. P. and the Birhors of Bihar.

(2) Some tribes are facing a cultural *malaise* due to contacts with civilisation and are showing a slower rate of increase. The Naga tribes, the Khonds of Orissa, for example.

(3) Some tribes have succeeded in their struggle for survival and are multiplying in proportion to their degree of adjustment,

such as the Santhals, the Mundas and the Hos of Bihar.

When we read these demographic trends along with the changing canvas of tribal life today, we shall probably find the key to the tribal problem.

The tribal population of India can be classified into three levels of cultural development. There are primitive tribes outside the pale of Hindu influence, the so-called 'real primitives' whose isolation has not been invaded, probably, due to inaccessibility and remoteness or even it has been invaded, without producing discomforts. There are tribes who have adopted Hindu customs and practices, have shown a degree of association with the lower castes and have reached a certain amount of cultural height, but who are still denied the status even of 'exterior' castes. There are primitive tribes who are definitely acculturated, are Hinduised or converted to Christianity, have attained a level of culture which has conceded a social status to the Hinduised tribes like the one enjoyed by the 'unclean' or the exterior castes or has put a stigma to the Christian converts for a change-over.

From the racial point of view, the tribal population of India, both of interior India and of the north-east frontier, belong either to the Indo-Australoid or the Mongoloid stock. The Nagas, the Kukis and the Manipuris of Assam are of Mongoloid origin, and other tribes like the Garos and the Rajbanshi have a mixed descent. The Mongolian strain has entered Assam and the outlying parts of Eastern Bengal in no uncertain way. The Indo-Australoids are scattered over the whole country. In Peninsular India, they have mixed with the Mediterranean type and in Central India, they have been assimilated here and there

by an Alpine element which people the middle belt of India. In one or two tribes of the South, there is evidence of a 'negrito' strain which some anthropologists claim to be the basic racial substratum in the Indian population, but the 'negrito' has never been indigenous to India and the woolly hair, short stature and a mesocephalic head may be due to late infiltration or could as well be traced to the African source. There is ample evidence of the infiltration in the coastal parts of India of western Negroids and some anthropologists think that the Mediterranean race had Negroid association before they spread out. The Mongolian race cannot be said to have influenced the population of interior India, though the Scythian branch of this race had left its impression on the Kathis of Cultural Gujarat and probably among the Mhars, Rajputs and the Oswals of Cutch. From the evidence of blood groups, it appears that the Indo-Australoids do not show any close affiliation with the Negritos for the latter have a high B incidence. Even the Andamanese who are Negritos show a high B percentage. The Paniyans are A and O and the incidence of B in the tribal population is not very high either.

The Kaleidoscopic account of origins and miscegenation given above, indicates in a broad way, the extent of fission and fusion of cultures in India. It is not possible, therefore, to map out spatially the zonal distribution of specific culture or cultures, as it may still be possible in Africa and Oceania, inhabited by 'native' people, except perhaps in the out-lying parts, in the Naga hills in Assam or in the Agency tracts of Orissa and Madras, in Bastar, Hyderabad and in Tribal Mysore, but that definitely in a relative sense.

The Tribal Pattern in Dudhi in Mirzapur District in the Uttara Pradesh.—The tribal belt in the Uttara Pradesh runs in a

parabolic form, with Gorakhpur as its apex, one arm passing through Mirzapur, bordering the Kaimur range of hills, the other through the Tarai to the *cis*-Himalayan region. The depth of this belt is not very significant and that is why the numerical strength of the tribes in the Province, is not considerable.

The U. P., have a mixed population, which was labelled as 'Aryo-Dravidian' by Risley, but the difficulty of identifying the original racial types, with any linguistic or cultural family, has been conceded and we have had to revise our racial nomenclature, in the light of recent research. In the *Racial Survey of the United Provinces* (1941 Census) we have found at least three, if not more, racial types which may be called:—

(1) Mongoloid, living in the *cis*-Himalayan districts and the Tarai regions,

(2) The Indo-Mediterraneans in the interior of the Province, and

(3) A dark short-statured, flat-nosed racial type living in the south of the Kaimur range of hills and interspersed here and there.

There is, however, a top-dressing of an Indo-Nordic strain particularly in the western parts of the Province.

The land.—The tribes of Dudhi belong mostly, to the third of these racial types, Proto-Australoids. Dudhi is the southernmost Tahsil, of the district of Mirzapur, and lies between the parallels of $23^{\circ} 52''$ and $24^{\circ} 54''$ north latitude and $82^{\circ} 32''$ and $83^{\circ} 33''$ east longitude. It is bounded on the north by Parganah Agori, on the east by Palamau and Sarguja and on the west by Parganah Singrauli. It is 30 miles in length and 24 miles in width with a total area of 607.2 square miles or 398, 987 acres. There are four Tappas:—

(1) Pulwari extending to 79 square miles east of the Kanhar river,

(2) Dudhi lying west of the Kanhar extending over 121 square miles,

(3) Gonda Bajia with an area of 173 sq. miles east and south of Dudhi and

(4) Barha or Adhaura lying south-west of Dudhi and north-west of Gonda Bajia with an area of 234 sq. miles or over.

The land is rocky, covered with hills and stunted forests, interspersed with pockets of cultural lands, which supply the need of food for the scanty population of the area. The hills are of igneous and metamorphic rocks, here and there are of clay slate or schistose formation and in the bulk of the Pargana there are gneiss seamed with dolomite, limestone, quartz, serpentine and other minerals of the schistose chain in the north. The aerial view of Dudhi, is represented by a land of rolling hills intersected here and there, by rivers and hill streams with isolated peaks, the highest of which is about 1830 ft. above sea level. To-day, Dudhi is the scene of much activity; a cement factory is being started, at Chopan, which will depend upon tribal labour; the Rihand Dam is being constructed, which will inundate large tracts of land and urbanise parts of Dudhi.

The People.—The total population of Dudhi is approximately, 70,000, which is 30,000 more than it was, in 1881, when the first census was taken and the majority of this population is composed of the tribal or exterior groups, the few urban centres like Dudhi containing a sparse population of non-tribal stock. There is a differential growth of population, among the different tribal and semi-tribal elements, probably in proportion to the degree of adjustments achieved by them. The Korwas, one of the primitive tribes of the U.P., are dying out;

they have recorded a fifty per cent decrease during the last fifty years, but the Kharwars and the Majhwars show no signs of exhaustion and their number is on the increase.

Even today, one can find migrant families living under temporary leafy booths and bamboo and straw-thatched huts are pretty common in the interior, though substantial families are found to construct tiled houses with mud walls. The house is constructed facing north or east, but on no account it is erected with its front towards the south; the gates of hell, they will tell you, open towards the south. The site of the house is determined by the Chero *Baiga* who sacrifices a fowl, performs a '*hom-sakla*', with profuse libation of liquor, after which the villagers co-operate to build it.

The villages are usually situated near some source of water, a river, a *nala* or a pool, but there are villages which have to fetch water from a distance of a couple of miles even. The children walk about in a disgusting state of nudity, up to six or seven years; men put on a loin cloth while women don a *dhoty* or *sari*, which they only take off once, when it is torn into shreds. Cleanliness is not at a premium, particularly among the Korwas, Kharwas, Ghasis and Cheros and most do smell from a distance. Men wear rings and bangles, put bamboo tubes in ear lobes, and some use ornaments made of palm leaf (*tarki*), glass bangles, heavy anklets (*pairi*) brass rings on the fingers and toes, and also bead necklaces in plenty.

Food.—Maize, *Juar-Bajra* and various kinds of millet constitute their food and rice is a luxury; *Mohua* flowers are dried and powdered to make bread or *halwa*. The Korwas eat bear, pig, monkey, fowls,

ox, buffalo and all kinds of deer. The Ghasis are fond of pork and eat goat's meat. The Panikas eat everything except the flesh of cow or buffalo, horse, crocodile, snake and lizard. The Bhuiyas eat beef and crocodile. The Kharwars have become Hinduised and refuse fowls and pork. The only tribe that relish the monkey, are known to be the Korwas; this is a taste they share with the wild Birhors of the Ranchi district, the rest seldom care for it. The people of Dudhi are fond of chewing tobacco leaves and are extremely fond of liquor, which they used to brew themselves in earlier days, but now buy from the liquor booths.

Though the varieties of food they can take are many, the resources available are not much with the result that most of the tribes live a precarious life. Famine and starvation have become chronic, and deficiency diseases find an easy asylum in their otherwise sturdy bodies. In spite of such bleak economic prospects, the tribes show inordinate fondness for songs and dances and every village, at dusk, gets ready with *bana*, *maniar* and *dhapla*, crude instruments, to the tune of which, the aged and the young dance their *karma* or *netua* dances.

Though the pivot of the economic life, in Dudhi, is agriculture, it is the most uncertain method of subsistence. The tribes have taken to permanent cultivation, after the stoppage of *dahaiya**, but the rocky and inhospitable soil, absence of irrigation and ignorance of the people, about manure and crop rotation, do not yield a plentiful harvest. It is the village *Baiga*, who has to propitiate the spirits, to secure a square yield. The blood of the sacrificed fowl must be sprinkled on the field, to make the seeds

* A primitive form of cultivation in which forests are burnt down and seeds are sown on the ashes.

ROBERTS GANJ

AGORI

PALAMAU

PULWA

DUDHI

BARHA

CHITRA

SINGRAULI STATE

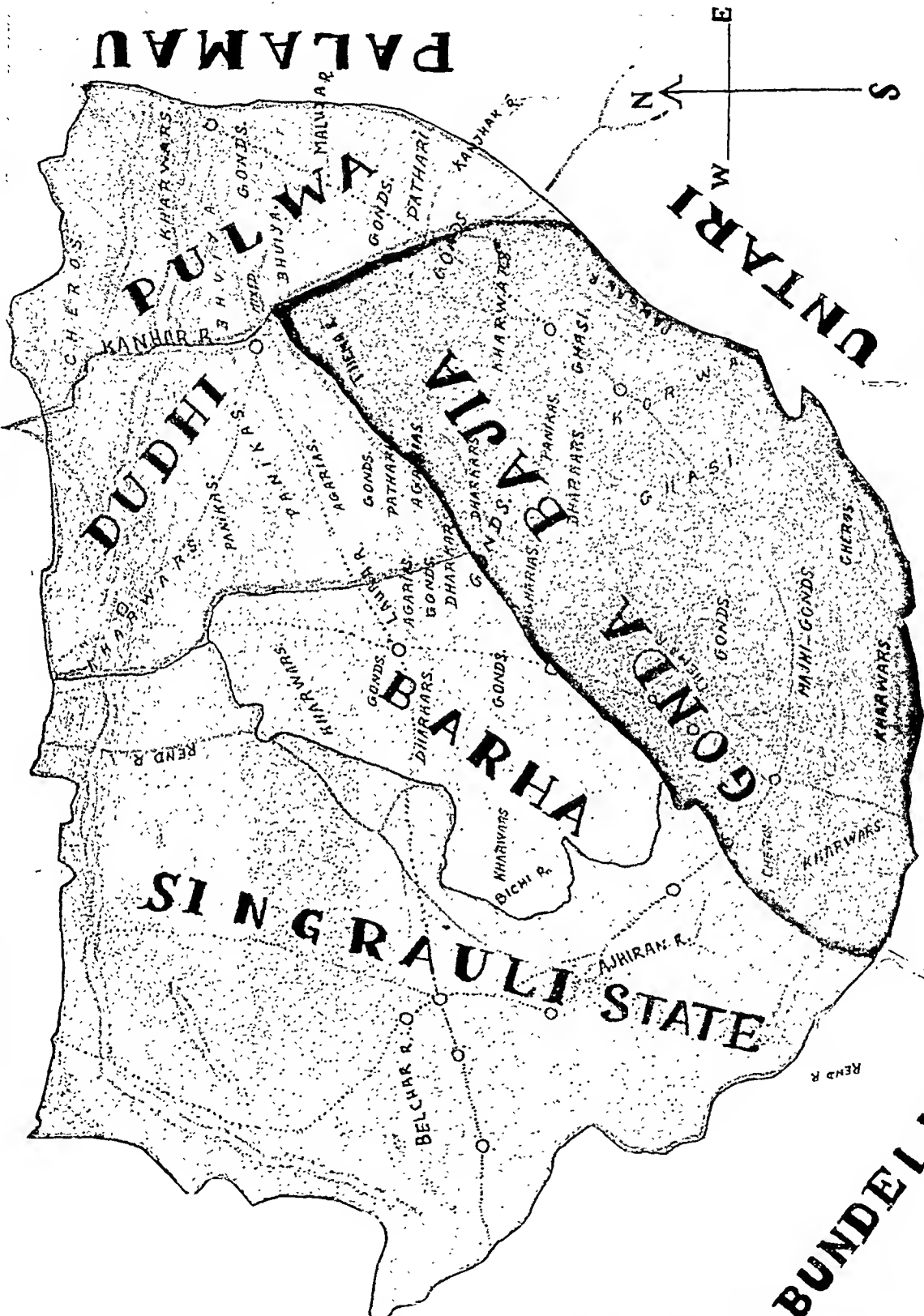
REWA STATE

UNTARI

DISTRIBUTION
OF
TRIBES & CASTES
IN
PARGANA DUDHI

SARGUJA

BUNDELKHAND



TRIBAL PEOPLE OF DUDHI (MIRZAPUR)



A Chero



A Chero Wife



fecundate, and even the gods are not kind and the aged people blame the youth, for their acts of omission or commission, which cause a poor harvest or no harvest at all. Domestication of animals and collection of edible fruits and roots supplement their meagre produce, from the fields, but the economic prospect are always lean and gloomy, and magic, witchcraft and propitiation play a significant role in reducing insecurity, which is chronic.

Supplementary Occupations.—Many are the supplementary occupations, resorted to by the tribes, to eke out a meagre subsistence, but the absence of markets and their proverbial shyness make a bargain impossible, and even if they work hard their labour goes unrewarded. Often one can find in the weekly markets, the tribal men and women leave their produce or their wicker work they bring for sale or exchange, and run away to escape a summons, by an officer, or a mere question by a constable or a turbaned employec of the administration.

Some among the Bhuiyas and Kharwars, manufacture *Catechu*, by an indigenous process, of boiling the bark of the *Khair* tree and drying it into a paste which solidify under low temperature. They represent, according to local tradition, an outcast lot for the mere fact of taking to a profession, which was not traditional with them. The manufacture of *Khair* is hedged in by a number of precautions, and even sexual continence has to be observed, during the season, when *catechu* is made.

The Agharias are the traditional smelters of iron and they still forge various tools and implements of daily domestic use. There is no new technique adopted by the Agharias, and competition is not much in evidence either. The local tribesmen are content with the crude workmanship,

for the wages paid to the makers of tools are ridiculously low, say three annas for a dozen arrow blades. Making of gut, of the fibrous tissue, from carcase of dead animals, and then drying it out, in the form of long strings, is the occupation of the Ghasis. Silkworms are raised, by the Bhuiyas and the Chamars, one aboriginal and the other 'exterior' and oil, from *mohua* or *sirson*, is extracted by the Tili. Daru, or the favourite elixir of the tribal people, in Dudhi, is made under the control of the Excise Department. It is made of *mohua*, which is fermented in big pots fixed to the ground. The fermented liquor is transferred to a metal vessel and the steam is allowed to pass through an inverted vessel, connected by tubes, with a condenser kept in a big tub. The steam cools down and transforms into a brisk and intoxicating liquor.

The women do most of the work and men are idle; the latter lounge often for days together. They may go to the forests to fell timber and leave their share of fuel to be carried home by the womenfolk. Hunting has been circumscribed, in the interests of forest preservation, but roots and fruits come handy, while children kill birds and small animals. Hard work by women, does not yield a rich dividend and abject poverty is met with in the interior villages. Superstition and magic help them to tide over crises but these have raised ugly heads, so that gods and spirits refuse to move even if sacrifices are made. Property is owned by the father and is passed on to the male children; women come to live with their husbands but they enjoy no rights to property though they may speak of it, as 'my house', 'my cattle' as a mark of vanity.

Tribal Government.—There is yet a vestige of tribal government among the tribes;

every tribe has a number of clan *Panchayats* which are known by different appellations; the Korwas call it *Bhayyari*; the Panikas call it *Kutumyat*, the Kharwars, the Cheros and the Agharias know it as *Kabildari*. It is this organisation that has the right to impose taboos and restrictions or sanction licence, maintain laws and regulate economic and social life.

Villages inhabited by several clans have a village *Panchayat* besides the elders, who constitute a council, for the clan, and the jurisdiction of each is traditionally prescribed. Inter-tribal *Panchayat* also functions, when necessary, to arbitrate disputes between tribes and between villages, and taboos are willingly obeyed, violation being met with punishment or ostracism.

Each tribe is divided into several clans, the Kharwars are split into 4 sections, Dual-Bandhi, Patbandhi, Surajbanshi and Benbanshi. The sections that are not found in Dudhi are Bhogta, Sisha and Tirvah. The Cheros are divided into Bhusar, Bisar, Sonta, Napa, Dasputwa, Lohar, Bighuga, Jahuna, Kekar, Kasurijata, Amkahiya, Dhusan, Gosin, Sindurha, Bhilwa, Sita and each sept is exogamous while the tribe observes endogamy. The Majhwar septs are similar to those of the Gonds and it is possible that the Manjhis were originally of Gond extraction. Many of the sept names are names of animals and plants but unlike other parts of the world where totem objects are worshipped or propitiated, there is no religious significance attached to them, the only restriction being ineligibility to marry within the totemic clan. Hindu influence has done much to orient their outlook and religious beliefs and practices though the core of tribal religion still remains vital.

Customs.—The naming of children is a significant occasion and the names are sele-

cted from those of their dead ancestors; there is a belief in continuity of existence so that the grandfather after death takes the earliest opportunity of being reborn as the grandson, and the name of grandfather is naturally given to the child. Seers and dreamers look for similarities, a mole here and a mark there, and when in doubt they take to lots, to decipher the role of the dead ancestors. Tattoo marks are said to be everlasting and a wife would ask for tattoo marks, for these may not be stolen or lost and remain even after death.

The tribes all have to pay a brideprice, to secure wife, and the brideprice is pretty heavy. Marriage is usually done with the consent of the parents, the latter settling the match, but the maternal uncle is also to be consulted. The bride's parents must be given half a maund of flour, one goat, jaggery worth eight annas, wine costing a rupee. In addition the mother-in-law must receive (*mai-kapar*) i.e., a *sari*, brother-in-law one *dhoty* (*sai-kapar*) grandmother one *sari* (*aji-bandu*) and the bride a fine *sari* (*dulhi ka pahrava*). The Korwas have to pay five rupees as bride-price, the Kharwas give a *thali* and 45 seers of grain, and five rupees, besides wine, gur, clothes, cakes etc. If a man cannot pay all these he may marry by service, in which case, he stipulates to serve the bride's family, as a labourer, for a couple of years or more, he can also marry, by exchanging his sister, to another, whose sister may be given to him. Often the bride and the bridegroom may decide to marry, by mutual choice, and elope to escape the customary bride-price. Cross-cousin marriage is pretty common, and the elder brother's wife, after his death, is married by the younger brother of the husband. Widows can also re-marry.

A peculiar custom among the Majhwars and Kharwars, of Dudhi, still practised by

them, is what is known as 'couvade'. After the birth of a child, the mother is allowed to take part in the domestic activities, as soon as she can, and she does it in a couple of days, but the husband must not touch anybody or do any work and will be attended, by the inmates of the house, for days together. Even on receipt of the news, of the birth of a child, he must be regaled, with spicy drinks, and the wife may go unattended.

The tribes of Dudhi, normally cremate their dead but they also bury or throw away those who meet violent deaths or die of small pox, cholera and snake bite. Every man or woman possesses a *chaonz* or shade, which keeps company with the *jiva* or soul during the person's life time and is ceremonially called back, after death, and it is housed in the *chauri* or the shelter for the dead. Belief in re-incarnation is strong, and the ancestor is always reborn in the family. Mourning is done by hired mourners, but today, the members of the bereaved family take part in the procession, and perform all the rites associated with death. Ashes are spread at night in a room, and all the members sit round to find out if any sign is noticeable, on the ashes; if they find any, they read the sign and predict the future of the soul.

Religion.—The religion of the tribal population, centres round the propitiation of the invisible spiritual beings, believed to be endowed with personality and potentiality for harm or good. There are hill spirits, clan deities, jungle spirits, village godlings, ancestor spirits and animal spirits. Raja Chandol is a hill spirit, and is worshipped by all the tribes of Dudhi, and there is the spirit of Bhaurahi hill Mirgarani, and that of the Gonda hill in the *tappa* of Gonda Bajia. Bajara Deva and

Dakhina Deva are jungle spirits worshipped by the Bhuiyas, Korwas and the Ghasis. The Gonds have their clan god Burha Deo, the Ghasis have Chhahat Baba, the Kharwars have Raja Lakhan. Dihwar or Deohar Baba is the village god and Dharti Mata is the earth goddess while Jalamukhi, Ghanashyam, Atbhuja Devi, Angarmata, Rakti Bhawani are some of the more important and intolerant of Dudhi gods and spirits, they venerate or propitiate.

The Changing Canvas in Dudhi.—Dudhi is an Estate, directly managed by the U. P. Government. As an administrative unit, Dudhi has had an interesting political history. For more than three hundred years, the area was nominally under the Muslim rulers and for a period of 180 years or so, it was under the British administration. Dudhi being a forest tract and adjoining the Sarguja and Rewa States of the present Vindhya Pradesh, was noted for good *Shikar* and the aboriginal people of this 'partially' excluded area, provided the beaters for their masters, who preferred them to live their life with occasional thrills, provided by the *shikar* parties.

But Dudhi was not looked after as other 'partially excluded areas' of India were, for the reason that there was a strong non-aboriginal element in the population of Dudhi who migrated for the 'flowing milk' and the 'honey' of the forests. The need for the development of the area, for the exploitation of the forests, by the administration and the trading concerns, encouraged immigration of non-tribals. Some of the agricultural castes, like the Koiries, were requisitioned by the Estate administration to teach farming to the tribals. The Kalwars, who were excise contractors, the Muslims, who were *thicadars* of *lac*, cocoon and *sawai* grass, the Bania, who organised the grain trade of Dudhi, and the *ghee*

merchants, all had unrestricted domicile in the midst of the tribal population. Any kind of protective legislation or organised efforts to secure the pattern of tribal life would produce conflicts, which was expedient to avoid.

Even now communications have not developed, and the only means of transport are pack horses or bullocks. The Sone, the Kanhar and other rivers, during the rainy months, and even in the early part of the dry season, do not afford a safe or convenient passage of animals, which carry the *ghee* and grain trade of the area besides the forest products. During the last three or four years, some of the arterial roads have been reimproved and the main roads reconditioned, to enable lorries and trucks to come to Dudhi, from the Robertsganj side, and more facilities will be available when the industrial projects, the cement factory and other mining concerns begin to function and the projected dams provide power to the factories and mining concerns in and around Dudhi.

Government Enquiry.—The U. P. Government appointed an Enquiry Committee, on May 17, 1947, to look into the affairs of the Dudhi Government Estate, and its labours have resulted in a documentary report, published in 1948. The findings of the Report are indeed a dismal reading. A few sentences may be quoted for their factual importance. 'All articles are carried on pack horses or bullocks', 'rainfall averages 42-23 inches per year', 'of 607 square miles, the forests occupy 357 square miles', 'there were 19 famines upto 1913', 'there is no fodder, no water, with the exception of a few localities, 'fever is always rife', 'most of the labourers working at the Nagwa dam suffer from itch' and 'they drink water from a pond, which stinks from a distance of 150 ft.', 'subs-

stantial number of them have to depend on *mohua* for their evening meal everyday', 'about 80 to 90 p.c. of the population suffer from venereal diseases', 'there are 27 schools, 10 primary, 1 middle, 11 infant, 3 girls', 1 adults, 1 maktab, and an English school has only been started by private enterprise, for a population of 1,79,796'.

Mention is made of a number of Hindu customs and practices, which the aboriginals have adopted or are likely to do so with further contacts with their Hindu neighbours. 'Under the outstill system', says the Report, 'liquor is cheap, being retailed at annas 6 to annas 8 a bottle. The contractor, when he feels inclined to augment his income does so by adding more water and as the amount of intoxication is not sufficient, in such cases, the purchaser continues to increase the number of bottles, for his consumption, from day to day and month to month'. The excise revenue raised by the Government works out at about a lakh of rupees, per annum, and a similar amount must be assumed to go to the pockets of the excise contractor.

Prostitution is normally unknown in tribal society, unless the tribe has been completely detribalised, for it is not possible under an integrated tribal economy and the traditional mores of tribal life. 'One of the reasons', says the Report, 'for prostitution, in Dudhi, is poverty and for this reason the aborigine, and those who are poor, are unable to resist the temptation of selling their persons to those who have money to offer. This has led to such an increase in venereal diseases, that, according to common estimate, over 80 p.c. of the population suffers from venereal diseases'. Witchcraft and sorcery and their necessary concomitant, *viz*, divination, dominate all the aspects of tribal life and culture and today, the vitality of the tribal people, in

this area, has been completely shattered by poverty, disease and destitution.

The alien elements in the population, of Dudhi, are exploiting tribal labour and personnel, without any check or hindrance, the land has passed on to the *sowcars* and a modest estimate would put seventy-five per cent of the best farming land, in the tribal villages, now owned by a few Kalwars and moneylenders, who have acquired them by dubious methods. The indebtedness, of the tribal people, has made them bond slaves, and many are the families, who have been slaving for their debts to the *sowcars*, for generations, without any hope of liquidating a paltry debt of a hundred or a couple of hundreds their great-great-grandfather had incurred, for an unproductive purpose, mostly ceremonial. *Begar* is openly practised and most of the needs of the aliens, administrators; traders and contractors are met by forced labour. Every *mahajan* has a few families in their obligation, whom they had advanced a few rupees, in times of urgent need, or when they were faced with starvation and these become permanent serfs, for indefinite period, without hope of redemption. Many are the cultivators, who cultivate for their *mahajans*, raise the yield to stock it in the courtyard of the latter, themselves being doled out, a few measures, which keep them on a couple of months or so, the remainder of the year, they slave for the *mahajans* and live on the free gifts of nature by curing poisonous roots and fruits with occasional luxury of a rice meal voluntarily doled out by the *mahajans*, a delicacy in tribal homes.

Helpless Position of Tribals.—In spite of the economic developments that have come with the exploitation of the virgin forests, with the possibilities of marketing *sawai* grass and leaves for the manufacture of

bidi, the propagation of *lac* and rearing of cocoons and the increased price that is available for other forest products and above all the needs of labour in mines and irrigation projects, the tribal elements have not profited or are likely to do so. They are still as shy as ever, as helpless and as unhappy as they could be though, 'once they were the rulers of the area', they were the masters of the forest and proudly partitioned it among themselves for forage and hunt. Many of the tribes still are found to possess deep chests, broad shoulders and a resourcefulness that placed them in an advantageous position with regard to forest products and the animals of the chase, but unrestricted contacts, unscrupulous traders and contractors, the landgrubbing middlemen and the moneylender have all conspired to produce an environment in which the tribals are a misfit, detribalised and completely bowled out.

Where ninety per cent of the population are without gainful employment for months together, unless they slave for debts or do *begar* and where the economic conditions have deteriorated to such an extent that a square meal is a luxury, the bulk of labour for developmental needs of Dudhi, the dam projects and construction gangs, is requisitioned from outside and the tribal people move away to the interior or keep away from the arterial or trunk roads to escape *begar*. Even when they are forced to work they never pull their weight and are, therefore, regarded as useless or misfits. All menial staff of the Estate, even orderlies and peons and forest guards, are alien in language and culture and the same is the case with the people for whom they slave in the villages.

The discomforts, of the tribal people, have increased with contacts with civilisation, and there can be no two opinions

about their incidence. The solutions, that have been offered, are summarised below. They are recommendations by the Dudhi Enquiry Committee. They are sweeping and of national and international importance. 'A soil Survey', 'a paddy research station', 'starting of windmills', 'constructions of dams all over the area', 'subsidised silk-worm breeding', 'a poultry farm', 'centres to train midwives', 'provincialisation of the Dudhi hospital' and 'starting of small dispensaries', 'a planned housing scheme', an 'English School' at Dudhi, 'a network of primary schools', 'a radio and a silent movie' to be supplied to every Hindi Middle School, a 'Dudhi valley corporation on the lines of the Damodar Valley Corporation', 'a committee of industrial experts to examine the question of opening various factories', 'five crores to be provided for the establishment of electro-chemical, electro-smelting artificial fertilizers', 'Cement', 'paper' and 'other similar industries', a 'sugar-cane farm, and a sugar mill near Markundi', 'co-operative societies for lac', and exploration of possibility of other industries', 'a mineral survey', 'a railway line to be constructed', 'a rail-cum-road bridge near Chopan on the Sone', 'the metalling of trunk and feeder roads', 'a telegraph line' and so forth and so on. These are tall orders, and are unreal in the context of the present condition in this tribal area.

Planned Ameliorative Measures Needed.—The effects of the industrial economy, as it exists in Dudhi, have already been detailed, and if the proposed schemes of the committee, meet with administrative approval and financial provisions are possible, the effects on the social and cultural life of the tribal and backward peoples of the area, will be tremendous no doubt but unless there is a planned approach to tribal life, the discomforts of the tribal people will surely pass beyond control.

In most of the tribal villages, in Dudhi, there is a tragic decline in health of the people. Every house in the interior has one or more patients, who suffer from chronic diseases, either the earning member is a cripple, a paralytic, or suffers from an incurable disease, or the future of the family is mortgaged to malaria, filaria, or venereal diseases. Medicines are of no use, for in our ethnographic tours into the interior, many a time we had to empty our medicine chests and we did know how impossible the situation was in most of the villages. It is not the care of the sick or the cripple that is the problem but the security of the coming generation or of the adolescent population, that is more important. No amount of treatment or care possibly can save those who have reached the limits of their sufferings. They are lost already.

The food that is available, to the tribal people, particularly, the free-gifts of the forests, the roots and yams, that are regarded as 'famine food', have little food value, even if they provide the minimal calories needed for their lean life. The tribal diet must be looked into and the crops and vegetables, that are needed, must be popularised and if necessary, forced upon the cultivators, so that they may produce what is needed to provide a standard diet. Meat is a delicacy, to-day, and there is no scruples about taking it, and plenty of grazing ground is available, so that cattle and domesticated animals must be raised to produce the much needed quality food, of proteins and vitamins. If sheep is destructive of forest growth, let parts of the waste land grow grass for fodder, so that the grazing of sheep and goats may be possible; poultry farming is popular and a little attention and planning, could provide a rich source of food supply, and also secure an exportable surplus.

Alcoholism has increased with the availability of cheap liquor. Technological development, without planned recreation and social amenities, drive the labour to the only possible relaxation and before further expansion takes place, proper evaluation of tribal social life must be regarded as a desideratum. The social amenities that existed but have slipped away, must be revived and reoriented to suit the needs and aspirations of the people. The dances and folk songs for example, are still popular and they need to be encouraged, they are tribal, and they can be made to provide the necessary release of tensions that arise in the wake of a technological civilisation.

Prostitution, crime and delinquency increase with industrialisation and in a tribal society, that is not used to a money economy, a sudden invasion of a money economy puts cash in the hands of those who do not know how to spend it and trinkets and jewellery attract women which can also be secured by a life of easy virtue. The floating non-permanent population, of the urban centres, and the *thicadars* and contractors, who live away from their families, lure women by the prospects of a few coppers, and women respond to them by exhibiting their health and figure and adopting a dress which increases their sex appeal and encourages adventurous advances. A tribal people with its moorings completely shattered, can have no social control over their women for even taboos have lost their stings and tribal women find it easy to adopt a new standard of morality in which clandestine promiscuity does not produce any qualms of conscience.

Already the cup of tribal life is full of miseries and family life has been shaken to produce irregular alliances which ulti-

mately lead to divorce and desertion. The incidence of divorce in tribal society of Dudhi is pretty high and even inter-tribal and inter-clan marriages find no condemnation from the tribal elders. Many are the cases of adultery, abduction and wilful desertion and these are reported by the villagers, without feelings or sentimental outbursts. In some tribes, the changing conditions of life have encouraged flagrant violation of tribal code regarding morality and social values, and there is little redress against aggressive behaviour. Factory work or work in the dams and mines, are likely to increase family tension and breed disaffection.

Save the Tribals.—What we have said of the Korwas, of Dudhi, in an earlier publication* is equally applicable to the Bhuiyas, the Kharwars and the Majhwars and other tribal elements in these parts. The transition in tribal life has a woeful story to tell, and a new and informed approach to the problems of tribal life, or for the matter of that of all tribal areas, is the only earnest of a healthy adjustment plan in a technological setting. The need for an appraisal of tribal problems *vis a vis* technological advance, at no time was greater than it is to-day, if we need to place welfare above want, progress above pacifism, survival above slavery, all-out efforts above expediency. What is needed, to-day, is a welfare administration, with properly trained personnel, to work out plans for rehabilitation, and give shape to them. In the context of the envisaged changes, and the advance of technological complements and aids, the confidence of the tribal people must be revived and that is possible by sympathy, understanding and a selfless hand of fellowship extended to the families and groups who are groping

* 'The Fortunes of Primitive Tribes' Vol. 1. Lucknow 1944.

in the dark for light. The difficulties of assimilating culture change and technological progress are increased by a rapid speed and an indiscreet offensive on social inertia, for the capacity of assimilation of the new dynamics, needs appraisal.

The establishment of factories and large scale industries, in backward areas, without ascertaining the capacity of the people to accept and adopt such rapid change may recoil in the long run, on Indian industrialisation. A change from agriculture and cooperative farming into handicraft and cottage industries, may have a smooth transition, for the personal relationship that the tribals everywhere regard as indispensable to personality adjustments must not be superseded by a sudden change to factory production or large scale undertakings. Irrigation by tanks and storage water must

precede canal irrigation and a time lag must be allowed for the backward people to adjust to new methods of distribution. As long as tribal solidarity exists, it should be explored to aid adaptability and the first steps towards technological advance, which must come sooner than later, must be cooperative and collective farming, multi-purpose cooperative societies, and tenancy legislation, declaring the tribal land inalienable from the tribes, and eliminating middlemen and usurpers who have merrily intercepted profits and reduced them to bond slaves and an essential 'must' or 'compulsive', of wiping off debts, lock, stock and barrel. This is the experiment that must be given top priority, before any development schemes are planned and given effect to in tribal parts of the country. Mere knowledge of three R's is not the panacea as some devoutly think.



A Majhwar Village Official



A Majhwar Belle



An Old Majhwar



A Bhuiya Woman



^ Bhuiya Grandmother



Korwa Women

FILM—AN AID TO SOCIAL WORK

M. S. ANANTHAPADMANABHA RAO

Film has a Universal appeal. Hence its services are enlisted to promote various interests usually of a dubious nature. It is increasingly felt that this effective medium could be used for educating people in the field and techniques of social work. The writer, here explains how, when films are carefully planned, could serve to create healthier interests in the members of the community and marshal their energies for a better social life.

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The film has been described as an important medium for the diffusion of human thought. It is unsurpassed as a weapon of effective mass communication. Its appeal is universal. The influence which the motion picture has established on the public, in the last seventy-two years, is immeasurable.

The interest of the public in films has increased tremendously. It has become a permanent feature of their life. This gives us the clue for its immense potentialities in moulding or educating the public for the benefit of society. The film has been widely recognised as an agency for educational purposes. The movement received an impetus with the recent discoveries in the audio-visual method of imparting information not only to children and students but to all members of the society.

The view that film is only for the entertainment of the people has been rendered not wholly meaningful under the possibility of a happy combination of both entertainment and education. It should be the aim of film not only to provide entertainment, to offer an 'escape', but also to take an active hand to solve social problems thereby helping social progress.

Entertainment, without a central educative purpose, is like a horse let loose and its working on the mind of the public is harmful to society. That the film in addition to its being entertaining can also be educative, in its wide sense, which in fact is its primary

purpose, has opened several ways of its use as a powerful weapon of social work. An attempt is made here to show how social work can be done through the agency of film. Before dealing with the theme it is necessary to understand the present place of the Indian film industry in comparison with the American, the Russian and the British; and set it rightly against its historical background.

Indian Film Industry: Historical background.—The origin of the film is similar to that of many other great discoveries, of social importance. The success of capturing the movements of a horse in a series of synchronized still pictures by E. Muybridge during 1872-78 paved the way to motion picture through the phenomenon of 'persistence of vision'. It was not until 1926, after the World War I, that successful screen sound was given to the silent picture, for which Eugene Augustine Lauste of Paris was chiefly responsible.

India witnessed the first silent motion picture in 1896. Dhundiraj Govind Phalke was the first Indian to produce a picture (*Raja Harichandra*), in 1912. By this time non-theatrical films, for educational use, were being produced in America. Specialised catalogues of educational films as '*Birth of a flower*', '*Redcross Seal*' were available in England, France and America. India, though a slave country, slowly marched on and produced between 1913 and 1931 over 1000 movies and 400 cinemas came into existence. In 1931 Ardeshir M. Irani pro-

duced a full length talkie film, *Alam Ara*, in Hindi. Within four years after the production of this picture the Indian film industry made remarkable progress and a total number of 233 pictures were produced in 1935. Most of the themes used by the producers were mythological. After the Second World War the film industry emerged as a prosperous one. The removal of control on raw film gave a great fillip to the production of motion pictures.

India stands second in the production of pictures among the other nations of the world. America produces 450 to 500 pictures a year; India 250 to 280; and England 50 to 60. But it stands first as regards the number of producers are concerned. There are in India approximately four hundred producers other than studio owners; in America 150; in England 70. These figures indicate the interest of the public in this enterprise and the resources for the development of the industry.

The number of pictures produced since 1943*.

Year of production	No. of pictures produced
1943	159
1944	126
1945	99
1946	200
1947	283
1948	264

The total number of pictures produced, from 1931 to 1948, is 2979.

India's position regarding the number of cinema theatres is relatively low.

Name of the country	No. of theatres.
U. S. S. R.	40,000 (according to the five year plan at the end of 1950).
America	16,880
Great Britain	5,100
Spain	3,444
Czechoslovakia	2,194
India	2,058 (excluding 928 touring cinemas.)

The number of theatres in India is inadequate to meet the needs of the people. The approximate number of cinemas per million people:—

India	7
America	130
Great Britain	133

The interest of the people in films is growing steadily. The average total weekly attendance in cinemas, in India, is estimated to be 11,200,000; in U.S.A. 87,500,000.

India remains in the background as regards the production of short films and 16mm shorts and topicals are concerned. There are about 36 short film producers in India; and from 1940 to 1948 a total number of 262 16mm shorts and topicals were produced (e.g., '*Afghan Folklore*', '*Mysore*', '*Indian Harvest*', '*Soap*', '*Paper*', '*Your enemy—the Fly*' etc).

Planning needed in production.—The quality of Indian film is very low. The industry developed in this country without any plan. Individual enterprise, without any organised basis, is the greatest weakness. Only a coordinated and scientific plan can yield a beneficent result.

* 'The Hand Book of Indian Film Industry—1949' published by the Motion Picture Society of India, Bombay.

The plots that Indian producers select, for pictures, fall under three headings: 1) Mythological, 2) Historical, 3) Social. Sometimes we see a story, on the screen, without any reference to time and place. Claiming as giving entertainment to the workers in the factory and the field these films bring down the 'tastes' of the people; and when once they begin to appreciate them it will be hard to change their 'tastes', for they acquire the habit of viewing things from the standpoint of cheap entertainment which is associated with sex and lust. These films are of little use in the efforts to build up a healthy society.

Mythological subjects are, in a way, good themes for pictures in that they portray or make us visualise the ancient scriptures—Itihasas and puranas—the store house of Indian culture. More often than not the puranic pictures will not be true to their sources. The producers sometimes introduce 20th century costumes into these ancient stories. The changes that they make in the story and dialogue adulterate the characters and make the audience develop disrespect for them. The producer should not picture his emotions through these stories. A faithful reproduction of the originals in a visual form would be an ample service. There are few pictures which remain true to their originals, e.g. *Ramrajya* and *Bharat Milap*.

Historical pictures also suffer from the same defects as the Mythological. Sense of time and age is very important in these pictures and unfortunately Indian producers lack it. There are many good themes on which they have not yet laid their hands. The country is in need of many pictures of historical events and persons to make known to its people the past history which helps to a great extent to build the present. '*Sikander*' and '*Vikramaditya*' are examples of good pictures,

The subjects of social pictures have suffered a lot at the hands of Indian producers. With some exceptions the stories are almost alike. The subjects will be purely romantic without much reference to hard reality of experience. There are many aspects of social subjects which hardly come to the notice of the producers. '*Padosi*', depicting Hindu-Muslim unity, '*Hamrati*', which is perhaps a singular realistic picture, are examples of good social pictures. New Theatres, Calcutta, has attained a standard in the production of social pictures.

There are very few persons in this country, who are trained and experienced in the art of production. When the story is good and appropriate the manner of production spoils it. Production calls for more specialised and talented intellect. Many new producer-cum-directors are cropping up in the country. They think that with one or two years of experience in the line and with money they can produce any film. With better manner of production Indian producers can make the pictures attractive, effective, interesting and less laborious. The story of '*Good Earth*' for example is so common; it is the manner of production that makes it unique.

One of the chief factors controlling the development of film industry is money. It nearly takes two lakhs of Rupees to produce a picture and the producer will not be encouraged to produce more pictures if he does not get back his money. If the picture is of a high standard majority of the people, being illiterate, cannot appreciate it. This means loss to the producer. They seem to take refuge under the cover of this argument for producing low-grade films which will be in accordance with the public 'taste'. This is not as powerful a plea as it seems to be. It is the duty of the producer to improve the 'taste' of the public. They should not

propagate evil to fill their belly. This problem is not peculiar to India alone. The West has overcome it by slowly improving the 'taste'. It is in the hands of the producers to work out the miracle.

Film Censorship:—To regulate and set right all the mistakes of this industry Government took an active interest.

The first occasion on which the Government interfered in the Indian film industry was in 1918, when it passed the 'The Indian Cinematograph Act' for securing public safety, and to certify exhibition of pictures. The Indian Cinematograph Enquiry Committee was appointed in 1927-28, to enquire into the methods of censorship. The Government established a connection, with the producers, through a Board of Censors—a body which sits in judgement upon the pictures produced by individual producers and certifies, in the interest of the public, their exhibition after a thorough review. The foreign Government cared hardly for the interests of the people. As an imperialist government it was concerned with its own interests. It only protected itself from open attacks from playwrights.

Censorship in a free nation is certainly a potent weapon to regulate and control the production of films and improve their standards. The Board of Censors is becoming very active, in India, at present giving suggestions with regard to the production of films. They can be summarised thus.*

It is not permitted, with regard to religion, to profane God or religious faiths and all religions should be treated with respect. Regarding people, ideals and morals it shall not be permitted to ridicule a whole nation, its creeds, culture, emblems or its accredited institutions. Costumes or behavi-

our of characters shall not be presented to ridicule or hate the whole community. Noble ideals as truth, justice, chastity, charity etc. shall not be ridiculed. Treatment of the low aspects of life and the necessity to show evil shall be guided by good taste and shall not offend the finer susceptibilities of the public, and no picture which will lower the moral standards of those who see it shall be represented.

Presentation of history, mythology, legends and classical works shall be based on documentary evidence. Characters of Indian or other mythologies, historical heroes or of sacred personalities shall not be presented in a frivolous manner; anachronisms in historical settings shall be avoided and obscene or undesirable historic facts and mythological episodes shall not be presented.

Law, natural or human, shall not be ridiculed and travesty of the administration of law shall not be permitted. No word or scene which creates sympathy for crime against law shall not be permitted. Any scene showing illegal production of drugs, liquor is forbidden. Controversial politics leading to class hatred shall not be permitted.

Sympathy of the public shall never be thrown on the side of crime or evil and an exposition of the technique of crime shall not be shown. Cruelty to children and beasts of burden shall not be shown. Kidnapping a child and abducting a woman are highly undesirable. Blackmail and addiction to opium shall not be shown as desirable.

About sex it suggests that the sanctity of the institution of marriage and family shall be maintained. Illegal forms of sex relationship shall not be upheld. Trade in women, prostitution shall not be presented, and suggestive reference to nudity is not permitted.

* "Fuller suggestions in regard to the production of films"—printed at the Government Press, Bombay.

Bed-room scenes and those of undressing shall not be permitted. Kissing or embracing by adults shall not be shown for it is alien to this country. Love scenes stimulating lower passions shall not be presented.

Dancing is an art and it should be in keeping with our traditions. Comic scenes should not be vulgar and ugly. Crude presentation of facts shall not be shown. The use of miracles permissible in religious and mythological pictures like the exercise of supernatural powers must be severely restricted.

For the satisfactory working of the Board of censors one condition that is very essential is that the members of the Board should be absolutely incorruptible. The Board in addition to judging a picture and declaring it good or bad should advise and aid the film Producing Companies in their work and help to create a great demand for good films of a higher standard. In this way the Board will be checking, indirectly, the production of third-rate films which are merely vulgar, risky or dubious. The need for censorship would diminish, in due course, and make the producers more conscious of their work. The Board should take into consideration, mainly, the benefits and interests of others—a wider section of humanity.

These observations pertain to feature films. But with regard to documentary, newsreels and shorts the Government should take direct, active interest to make them helpful to the progress and welfare of society.

Central Film Unit.—It was not until 1948 that the Government of India recognized the formation of the Central Film Unit so that visual instruction may become an integral part of the teaching system, in course of time. It will serve as the Central Library of Education and will loan films and materials for visual instruction to schools and other

educational institutions. It also arranges film shows, encourages the use of film and produces Indian educational films. The Indian Film Division has made good progress since its inception. But it must be said that the steps taken by the government are insufficient, negligible and lack scientific planning.

The progress that Russia has made in film industry is worth noting. The U.S.S.R. started using film, on a very large scale, immediately after the State took over the entire film industry, in 1919. The Russian film was mainly objective. It considered the individual primarily as the social unit, taking his place in the social scheme of things. Most of the silent films were very effective. Though the country was poorly equipped with sound recording apparatus until 1936, it produced very effective films. "*The Road to Life*" was the first Russian talkie showing the problems of children. The Soviet Union has the most magnificently equipped house of psychological study in the world—the Pavlov Institute in Leningrad. All matters relating to motion picture are in the hands of the Ministry of Cinematography. The Ministry runs a research institute and a school for writers, directors etc.

The Government of India, should evince greater interest in films, to make them an inevitable instrument of social work. Why is it such a potent tool for social work? Intensive concentration, spontaneous relaxation and active participation provide the basis for the universal appeal of the motion picture. The film with its capacity to catch the minds of the people easily, quickly and more or less permanently, undoubtedly, is the best medium for the propagation of social work.

Social work.—All activities which keep in view the progress and welfare of society go

by the name of social work. It is an expression of the conviction that social justice should be established for all the people. It is the outward manifestation of deep human sympathies. It seeks for peoples economic well-being and self-realization. It is an attempt to lift and place people, irrespective of class, creed or colour, on an equal social, political and fairly equal economic footing. Social work calls for conscious, deliberate and planned work.

The social worker is confronted with many complicated and intricate types of work and it is impossible for him to tackle them single-handed. He turns to the community or Government for help to achieve his objects, rather than relying on individual initiative or voluntary group actions. A demand is felt that social work should be accelerated by the efforts at conscious control by the people rather than be left to the slow process of gradualism or voluntary acceptance. It is a concerted movement by an organised institution or institutions.

A planned scheme for the production of sufficient number of educational films is necessary to carry out the task of social work. "Educational film is one which contributes to the achievement of desirable educational goals by making effective use of the motion picture as a medium of communication."* They include teaching films, informative films, documentary etc.

The use of films for social work can be discussed under ten main heads. They are: (1) Child and Student Education, (2) Adult Education, (3) Labour Welfare, (4) Rural Development, (5) Health Improvement, (6) Social Studies, (7) Social Evils, (8) Government Administration, (9) Arts and Crafts, and (10) Culture Propagation and Diffusion.

Child and Student Education.—Childhood is the most important period in the life of an individual. Great care should be taken to bring him up in a suitable environment. The child is all curious. He wants to know a lot of things. This instinct of curiosity must be fed and directed properly. Factual films and newsreels would help them to see the unseen.

Film is a time saving educational tool. It has the power to transmit ideas in a realistic and concrete manner, not possessed by language. Many lessons in the text books of children and students can be filmed to make them understand better. Any subject can be taught with the help of film.

The child in the West is better educated because of the advancement in the production of such pictures and in the equipment to project them. The picture "*Spelling is Easy*" was produced by Coronet Instructional Films, U.S.A., to make boys learn how to spell. "*Tea from Nyasaland*" tells the story of tea.

The films for child and student education must be produced after adequate psychological experiments. They should be in accordance with the children's mental age. Any haphazard production would be dangerous to their mental health.

Adult Education.—Majority of the people in India are illiterate. Efforts are made to make them literate. But literacy is only the first step in education. Adult education is furthered more through films. They should educate the adult in every walk of life. The advance that the documentary has made is an adventure in the public observation. It is a method of approach to public enlightenment, information and education. It has an imaginative drive and a creative spark which capture the mind of the public. These

* "Film and Education" edited by Godfrey M. Elliot page 23.

pictures help the growth of adult's knowledge and make him fit to live a healthy social life.

"How to get a job" is an American picture showing ways and means to secure a job. "Fred Meets A Bank" explains the functions of a saving bank. "The Voice of the City" tells about the working of telephone. "Whoever you are" is a picture showing the problem of intolerance in the neighbourhood.

Labour Welfare.—With the advance of industrial economy, in India, the lot of the labourer has become miserable. He is treated as a commodity and like other commodities is bought and sold. His family life presents a sorry picture. Bad housing, insanitary living conditions, lack of recreational and educational amenities, meagre income are few of his ills. This state of affairs should be remedied by providing opportunities for a good life.

Labour Welfare is an essential part of social work, and is executed by making the labourer adjust his work-life and family-life to the social life around. To educate the labourer and remove the horrors of industrial economy film comes to the aid. These films, besides being recreational, should educate the labourer about the various problems he is faced with. The following types of films can be produced.

(1) Films training the workers in their respective vocations, to make them know the work thoroughly and do it with ease and pleasure;

(2) films showing the relation between capital and labour, factory management, and duties of the officials, to enlighten the worker and to make him know his exact place in the scheme of things;

(3) films showing the formation of co-operative societies and labour organisations to fight for workers' essential demands;

(4) films showing an ideal labour colony and the methods adopted to improve the conditions of living;

(5) films to help the labourers to solve their personal and family difficulties.

Rural development.—India is a land of villages, and there will be no progress in the country without their development. The condition of the villager is as dismal as that of the labourer though the environment is different. Most of the villagers do not know the use of modern agricultural implements. Besides minimising his labour, their use will help him to produce more. Since almost all the villagers are illiterate films can effectively teach them modern methods of agriculture. Regular lessons can be given, through films, as to how to keep the villages clean and how to manage their affairs. The farmer has a tendency to idle away his leisure time. To avoid this he can be introduced to cottage industries, through films, to keep himself engaged in a useful manner. Profitable handicrafts can be taught through films. Many informative films and newsreels can be exhibited to enlighten the farmer on many general subjects.

Health improvement.—Health situation, in India, is poor. Measures should be taken to keep the nation healthy, strong and fit. Films can help, to a great extent, in this work. Films giving people considerable information of the nature of common diseases, how they spread and how to prevent them should be produced and shown to the people. Films giving a general idea of bodily constitution, conditions to be observed to maintain health should be exhibited. Nurses and medical students can benefit by seeing films about various diseases and treatment processes.

The disabled is not to be thrown out of the society as useless. He can be a master

musician, poet, or writer. Films showing the methods for curing the disabled can be produced. Plots based on child delinquency, mental diseases are few of the themes which producers can select for films. "*Children of the city*" is an American film investigating into the juvenile delinquency.

Social studies.—Family is the unit of the society, and home is the centre in the arc of happiness to the individual. Establishment of healthy family relationship is necessary for the welfare of the society. Film can portray an ideal home. It can teach many things regarding the maintenance of a home. They can teach a housewife cookery, sewing and child care. "*Bathing the Infant*", "*Home Nursing*", "*Now I am Two*", "*Managing Family Income*", are some American pictures in this line. "*Mrs. Miniver*", a full length picture, presented a picture of a good family.

The interests of the individual grows wider from the circle of his family. He attempts to solve the problems of his fellow-men. The student of social work will go to a village or a labour colony and takes an active hand in studying and solving their problems.

Studies about primitive tribes in an important part of social studies. They provide data of the customs, manners, behaviour and cults of different tribes. Film showing the customs and manners of the Todas, of Nilgris, or the Nagas, of Assam, will be interesting besides being a record for the development of further studies.

Social evils.—There are many anti-social problems which require intensive study. Drink evil, crime, prostitution, beggar problem are few of them. Films can be produced for their eradication. They will influence the public more than any amount of literature.

Propaganda.—Publicity and propaganda films are strong weapons for any government and their need is felt more in a democratic country. The film gives a fillip to military recruitment. The working of the government can be made known through film.

Art and Craft.—Art is the expression of the creative activity of man. It is a great factor in his social activity. It provides for distinct nomenclature and community identification. It is the concern of the society to protect different forms of art for they are great forces of social work.

Regarding music, films can be produced to teach its fundamentals. Group songs and national songs can be taught through films. Biographies of famous musicians can be depicted through films. Dance in all its forms and varieties can be shown to educate the people. Painting and sculpture can also be treated in the same way.

The motion picture has a definite place and value as a teaching tool in all the phases of vocational arts and crafts. It can be of help in imparting information, in demonstrating and teaching skills and in carrying out the guidance responsibilities in this field. It can be of help in the shop, kitchen, work shop etc.

Culture propagation and diffusion.—Society as the repository of culture takes great care in transmitting its heritage to future generations. India is proud of her rich cultural heritage. It has stood the test of time and has shown its rich vitality. This is a spiritual heritage. There are many agents to spread the ancient learning and religious doctrines as ashramas, muts, harikatas, puranas and bhajanas. Now that they are degenerating a new agency which is suited to the spirit of the time should take up the place and work for the propagation and diffusion of culture. And

films carrying out this function has no other equal. Pictures produced on these lines should create respect for the country's ancient culture in the minds of the audience. There are many lores and legends exemplifying spiritual doctrines and upanishad stories which when properly depicted strengthen the bonds of society.

By spreading many of the spiritual doctrines through films some of the social evils like crime and drink can be removed.

Thus we have seen the different uses of films and in what ways they can be best

applied for the progress of the society. Film is the synthesis, unity of all cultural expressions—music, dancing, picture composition, drama, comedy, rhetoric, costume and architecture. It is concerned in explaining life and in advancing the social process through the circulation of new and vital ideas. It is in closer proximity to the nature of truth and sincere to life than any other medium. It is a direct representation of life. It lends itself easily to the ways and means of doing social work. Thus film comes as a boon in the field of social work.

A STEP AHEAD IN SCOUTING IN INDIA

S. D. GOKHALE

It is a recognised fact that for free personality development young men should be brought up in a suitable atmosphere. It is tragic to note that the youths of India are being exploited by various political parties for propaganda work. This will naturally lead to regimentation of their lives. The writer, in this article decries the attempts made by various political parties in the country to raise volunteer squads to propagate their particular programmes and points out the need for keeping the volunteer movement free from any political bias. He makes mention of various volunteer movements in the country, the split which occurred in the scout movement and the efforts to organise the "The Hindustan Scouts and Guides".

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Recently, the All India Congress Committee appointed a committee to formulate a scheme for the incorporation of the volunteer movement as a wing of the Indian National Congress. This raises the question as to whether the Congress or any other political party has any right to employ youths for political purposes. It is a truism that every political party requires a volunteer squad, which develops into a strong instrument, to propagate and carry out the party programme. Such groups develop into effective forces for establishing the hold of a particular political party over the youths of the country. As every youth holds political views of one colour or other, he naturally joins the volunteer organisation of the party he likes. But the problem acquires gravity when this political enthusiasm outruns its limits and tries to invade and engulf organisations, not only of youths but also of children, who are innocent of any political inclination. It is not only astonishing but also tragic to note that serious attempts are made by political parties to imbue the minds of children with particular political ideas and further exploit their energy for political purposes. It is, therefore, necessary that all youth leaders, educationists and social workers, conducting the movement for children, should unite in raising their voice against this vicious exploitation of children.

Educationists and social workers, throughout the world, have unanimously accepted that it is the duty of parents, teachers, and youth leaders to provide equal and ample opportunities to children for their free personality development, which is vital, for their growing into ideal citizens, inspired with a democratic urge and passion for social justice. Hence no youths' or children's organisation has any right to stamp 'readymade' political opinions on the tender minds of children. The only way of developing democracy and enforcing social equality is to reorganise the whole educational system and carry on the movements for youths and children on democratic lines. Only in this way, a young boy or a girl, the future citizen of the world, will have full scope to form his or her opinion, will have an opportunity to choose his or her ideology and will be able to use his or her future franchise, with full knowledge.

World youth movements.—From this point of view, it is necessary to re-examine the principles that govern the youth movements in the contemporary world. The most important youth movements, of recent times, are the Sokols in Czechoslovakia, the Boys' Brigade in England, the Pioneers in Russia and the Boy Scouts in America, England and other countries.

The Sokols is primarily a movement for physical fitness of children and youths and aims at raising the standard of physical culture in the country. It claims to have no political ideology, nor allows itself to be exploited for any economic or political purpose or by any political party. Its leaders belong to different political parties. They believe in different economic ideologies. The only tie that unites them is their love for children and youths, their eagerness to develop a posterity destined to carry forward the torch of human culture. This intense love and concern for physical fitness and freedom from any political bias or affiliation have elevated the standard of the Sokol movement. Because of this neutrality in politics, the Sokol Movement has become very popular.

The case of the Pioneers in Russia is slightly different. As a necessary result of the political curtain, we know very little about the Pioneers from independent sources. What little we know of the movement is derived from the statements and writings of Russian educationists and authors, who are often dubbed as political propagandists by critics from other nations. If we ignore this criticism and accept that the Russian educationists are giving us an authentic account of the youth movement in their country, we can say that the Pioneers is one of the best organised youth movements in the world. This movement is according to the critics, a purposeful creation for imbuing the Soviet children with Soviet ideology. Otherwise, it is mainly based on the principles of Boy Scouts movement, which has taken deeper roots in England and America. "Only the name differs otherwise the basic principles and the programme of training is the same except the political tinge that has coloured the movement." (Dr. M. N. Natu, Asst. Provincial

Commissioner, U. S. A. Broadcast on Scouting). Since our information about the Russian movement is insufficient, it is not possible to have a complete evaluation of its nature.

The Boys Brigade and the Cadet Corps, in England, are movements which aim at imparting military training to children and youths. These movements have a definite military bias, which is clearly expressed through their programme of training and day to day activities. They do not claim to be cultural movements. They are based on the view that it is more than necessary, for every boy and girl, to undergo a course of military training which will give them an insight into an organised life and instil a sense of discipline in them. It is thought that such boys and girls will be helpful to the nation in its hour of need. The Junior Cadet Corps is often organised through schools.

The Brigades are Corps which are either organised through educational or religious institutions. These organisations are mainly working among the children in urban areas. For many years, there was no movement to cater to the needs of children, adolescents and youths in rural areas. To give them some social life and an opportunity for expressing and developing their specific needs and talents, the "Farmers' Clubs" were organised. This movement is well-organised and tries to reach the remotest village in England. As a part of its programme, it runs training classes in different subjects, organises 'socials' which bring together the rural folk and give the rural youths an opportunity for getting acquainted with the modern world. The movement has done admirable work in rural areas.

The movement of Boy Scouts is inspired with different aims. It neither gives ex-

traordinary importance to muscle building and physical development nor harps upon a disciplined, almost mechanical, life overlooking the development of the mind. This is the reason why Scouting avoids the regimentation of the lives of children and youths. Here lies the difference between Scouting and predominantly physical culture movements. Scouting does not stress on military training, with a view to avoid converting boys into brainless machines. It, however, does recognise the value of the sense of discipline. This distinguishes Scouting from Brigades and Cadet Corps. Further, Scouting does not play neither the role of a youth wing of a political party, nor has it any political bias influencing its programme of training; this distinguishes it from the youth wing of a political party.

Youth movements in India.—Youth movements which sprang up in India were distinguished from those in other countries by certain fundamental differences. Since India was a subject country, for the last 150 years, every activity in the sphere of national life, was guided by the ideology of political independence. A proper study of all social and political movements in the country will reveal that they were organised in pursuance of the same goal *viz.*, national independence. This attitude excluded any social or cultural considerations. Naturally, every political party tried to develop its own youth wing to help the party to gain ground in the political field. The Communists, the Congress, the Muslim League, the Socialists, and even the Mahasabha, tried to organise children and youths. As an inevitable consequence of this, no youth movement could keep itself completely aloof from political influence. The only cultural movement that could be described as neutral, and that too only in name, was the Scout Movement.

Origin of Scout Movement.—It is very interesting to know the origin of the Scout movement. It is stated that once Lord Robert Baden Powell, the founder of the Scout movement, went to witness a football match. When the match was over, he was astonished to find thousands of children roaming about lazily. He could not solve the riddle why these children were not organised on the basis of a programme of activities. Lord Baden Powell, himself being a military man, had known how children had proved helpful to the army in the African warfare. He knew the usefulness of children who were taught signalling, tracking, first aid, knotting and map reading for military purposes. He felt convinced that they would as well be useful to society and nation. He thought that if a few cultural items were added to this programme of training, and if social consciousness was created in them, those children would develop into good citizens in future.

Having thought on these lines, Lord Baden Powell started a new movement called the Boy Scouts. This movement is divided into three sections; the Cubs, the Scouts and the Rovers. The Cubs are usually children below 12 years; the Scouts between 12 and 16; the Rovers above 16. Though these are the three wings of the one and the same movement, every wing has its own method of training, programme and activities.

It is, no doubt, a matter of pride for the Scout movement that it has won an outstanding success, in planning for these three age groups. Every age group has its psychological, social, and cultural problems. The Scout training tries to adopt the best methods, to give the younger boy or girl, an opportunity for personality development. For instance, it is universally acknowledged

that a child of about 12 years is always fond of Jungle stories, thrilling yells, folk songs and group dancing. The Cubs are, therefore, taught primary signalling, tracking and knotting through stories and songs. Side by side the movement tries to create a social consciousness and makes them realise their responsibility towards their family and society. It is well known that out of the three wings of Scouting, Scouting and Cubbing have been enormously developed because Scouting has understood the basic differences between these three age groups.

It is not realised, even by most modern educationists, that a boy, between 12 and 16, is completely different from a boy below 12. Hence arises the necessity for different methods of training and programme of activities for boys belonging to different age groups. Primary, Middle and High Schools do not impart different types of education determined by different psychological structures of those different groups. Hence these schools are stigmatised as factories turning out the so-called educated children. The responsibility for this state of affairs does not lie not only with the teacher but also with the parents and society. A simple question would bring to light the present sorry state of affairs. If a boy fails in a certain subject, is it not the duty of the teacher and the parents to find out the underlying causes of his failure? Instead, under our present educational system, the child is simply dubbed as dull. The teacher does not make an attempt to find out the real defect. The classmates laugh at him. The parents remain dissatisfied. The boy remains dull and undeveloped simply because no attempt was made to discover his talent in other fields. Many such defects exist in our educational system. Parents, teachers, as well as society are, today, indifferent to them. Scouting tries its little

bit in instilling in every boy not only a sense of discipline and social consciousness but also in providing an opportunity for developing his personality.

A boy between 12 and 16, presents altogether a different picture. He develops a liking for his own group of friends, his code language and emblems. Aptly this age is called the gang age. This necessarily requires a different method of training and a different programme of activities. The new method, which is adopted for this Scout age, is known as the Patrol system. The Scout Troop is divided into 3 or 4 patrols, each patrol consisting of about 8 boys. This satisfies the need for gang and creates a circle of friends around him which plays a very important role in shaping the mind of the boy. Different types of signalling cater to his need for the code language which only his colleagues can understand. The names of the patrols, the colour of the 'shoulder knot' showing the animal friend he likes and the token on the staff satisfy the psychological needs. Tramping, hiking, and camping give him the company of Mother Nature which purifies the developing minds and gives a healthy attitude towards life. Camping, map reading, the judgement of distances and heights and knotting give him a sense of adventure. This type of training makes the boy healthy in body, mind, and spirit.

The Scout is asked to obey ten Laws and to take an oath which give a sort of formal and ceremonial form to inward spirit. The vow to do a good act, every day, creates in him the consciousness of social training. In short, the whole training aims at making the boy pure in word, thought and deed and kindles in him the urge of performing his duty to society, country and humanity.

The change that takes place, in a boy, when he enters the phase of adolescence is far deeper and more momentous than the change that takes place in a Cub growing into a Scout. This age can be well termed as a problem age. The Junior Rovers are neither children nor adults. The children consider them as bigger boys and do not allow them in their gang, while the adults consider them as growing boys and try their best to avoid them. They, however, have not grown enough to forget their childhood while they are not mature enough to be called adults. Therefore, the youths are often described as marginal personalities. Their problems are mainly psychological and social. With natural development they become socially conscious and also develop a sense of sex. If these energies are allowed to fritter away chaotically, their whole life may be seriously affected. They must be carefully guarded from social and psychological perversions. The new feeling in them must be sublimated and their social problems solved.

The method adopted in Rover training is called the Crew System. This gives more individual freedom than the Patrol System, and the boy, who has become conscious of himself, gets more opportunities of personality development. The sex training, contact with nature, and the rough and group games guard him against psychological and sexual perversions. Opportunities for adventure and camping give him another type of satisfaction. Unbiased study circles and intensive Rover training solve his ideological problems. The social service, which is a part of the Rover movement, developed on constructive lines, gives him a feeling of civic responsibility. All these factors help him to develop into a good citizen democratic in outlook and social in nature.

Right from the beginning, Lord Baden Powell was taking a keen interest in the boys' movement. After the first world war when he returned from his services, he started the Boy Scouts Movement. The story of the development of the Scout movement, in England, is completely different from that of the Scout movement in India. From its inception, it received in England the greatest possible support from the public, parents, and the Government. Many officers, who had returned from the war services, voluntarily shouldered the responsibility of leadership. With the best possible teaching staff, greatest government support and tempting social approval, the Boy Scouts Movement, developed there in no time. It established a training centre, (i.e. Gillwell Park), which has secured an international recognition. The movement soon took deep roots in other democratic countries like France and United States of America.

Scout Movement in India.—With the progress of modern education, which was inevitably influenced by the British educational system, social workers and youth leaders, in India, also planned for starting a youth movement based on the same principles as those of the Boy Scouts movement in England. There was absolutely no disagreement among the workers, in India, on the question of starting a new organisation for children, younger boys and youths. The only problem was how to get the recognition of the International Boy Scouts Movement. India being a dependent country, in the British Empire, it was illogical to expect an early recognition and affiliation from the International centre and Empire Headquarters. Dr. Mrs. Annie Besant, the well-known social and political worker, thought of all these difficulties and tried to organise a new independent Boy Scouts

Movement in India. Though she tried to give the movement an Indian colour, the basic principles were adopted from the original English movement. Subsequently other efforts to organise children and youths like "Seva Samiti" in North India, "Balchar" in South India and some others, were launched.

The original idea of Mrs. Besant was widely supported by the Indian leaders but, as an unavoidable evil, sometimes the political opinion of those leaders coloured the movement. The British Government also supported the movement and one cannot forget that it was more a political step than a cultural one. The Government tried to include Scouting in the new educational system, which resulted in the shifting of leadership from social workers to primary, secondary and high school teachers.

Support of the government.—The government recognition reshaped the whole organisation. Instead of political leaders and social workers, Governors of Provinces and various Rajas and Maharajas became the ceremonial heads of different provincial and district scout organisations with the Viceroy as the Chief Scout of India. This leadership was so formal and so feeble that it did more harm than good to the Boy Scouts movement in India. When once it was known that the government was giving its fullest possible support to the Scout movement many officials, semi-officials and the people trying to please the government entered the field. Naturally, the only motive which inspired the movement was to engender a sense of loyalty towards the Empire, in different forms and through different methods.

Scouting in schools became more a show and lost the spirit of the movement. The teachers, who were already overworked, somehow

tried to do this work. They worked in school troops, mostly, to please their Headmasters, to get an opportunity to dance attendance on the Governmental administrative head or to get a few more coins to balance their collapsing budgets. Whenever any Government official visited the school, the Scout band and Scout Troop provided him a guard of honour. It is not only surprising, but also tragic, to know that even the so-called Scoutmasters and Headmasters of schools felt that they fulfilled their responsibility by staging these formal demonstrations.

Another factor that poisoned Scouting in India was the division of the movement according to academic groups. Instead of dividing itself into Cubs, Scouts and Rovers, the movement was divided into Primary, Secondary and High School Groups. With Scouting running parallel to educational curriculum, scout training came to an end after the Matriculation Examination. Naturally the growth of the Rover movement was curbed in its early beginning. With this the differences between the real scouts and the hired scouts became most acute.

There is one more factor which cannot be overlooked. Recruitment of children to the movement was restricted to urban areas and the upper and middle social stratas of Indian Society. Scouting being caged in urban areas and school compounds, the movement could never reach the down-trodden masses. The educational facilities being available to children of the upper and middle classes, children who never went to schools had to forego the opportunity of receiving the scout training. The innumerable children, who never in their life had any opportunity to enter the schools, were denied the training facilities in Scouting. With the early curbing of

the Rover Movement, the Scout movement could never reach out to the working classes and, as a natural corollary, the movement could never claim to be a movement of all children. It was consequently often dubbed as a middle class movement and was criticised as a movement having apathy towards the nether elements in the country.

Split in the Movement.—Here it is very necessary to follow the political history of India during the last three or four decades. The rising political consciousness and the urge for liberation was influencing every element and all activities in the country. Psychologically the Indian people were so eager to attain independence that the political movement reached unimaginable heights. The all-embracing method of Satyagraha created a political consciousness among all youths. However, while the gigantic national political movement convulsed and captured the thoughts and emotions of Indian youths the scout leaders, with their heads in Olympic clouds, were expecting to develop a cultural movement.

One result of the growing political consciousness, was the emergence of a sort of non-discriminative attitude among the common people, towards all that was associated with Britishers. They hated whatever emanated from British bureaucracy; they disliked whatever was given by the British administration. The fault of the political leaders lay in the fact that they never developed a constructive rational attitude. The only idea which they instilled, in the minds of the people, was a distrust of the foreign administration, dislike towards the English educational system and a desire to destroy whatever came through the Imperial hands.

This negativism was expressed in all walks of life. Students were exhorted to

leave the universities while new national ones were not started, with rare exceptions of course. The people were counselled to boycott the machinery established by the British without, however, it being substituted by a new one. In fact we had no parallel administration, educational system or judiciary to substitute; this negative attitude used to become vocal through the following usual questions put to the Scout leaders. "Why should we have the Union Jack as our flag? Why should we have Governors and other administrative Heads as our local provincial or national Scout Chiefs? Why should we take the oath to be loyal to the British Emperor? Why should we have the international affiliation which ultimately means the informal obedience to the Imperial Headquarters?" This tussle between the national element and the loyal element, within the Scout movement, led to the breaking up of the Scout movement in India.

Here one more factor responsible for this break up must be mentioned. That was the creation of youth wings by the various political parties in the country. With the awakening of the masses different political parties came into existence. Each had its own plan of liberating the country and each required a youth organisation, to be exploited for party purpose. This happened during the political movements of 1920, 1922, 1930, 1933 and 1942. Youth organisations developed during the periods of these stormy struggles with great rapidity, but with a political bias. The Seva Dal, the R.S.S., the Khaksars, the Razakars, the Loksena, and the Khudai Khidmatgars were the principal among these. All these youth organisations had a definite political motive behind them.

Though the development of an educational and cultural movement was vitally

needed, in the country, the stormy political atmosphere submerged, in some fields, the normal ethical principles, which should govern practical activity of men. The people and the leaders forgot that it was more than criminal to exploit children, below 12, for any political or economic purpose. Such exploitation made the latter forego the opportunity of personality development. The free development of personality was obstructed by political influences. Its free growth and expression was tragically distorted, due to the pressure of political party propaganda.

Decline in the movement.—The element of disagreement between the so-called national and imperial workers, in the Scout movement, was not only felt by the workers, in the movement, but it was visible even to an outsider and onlooker. In 1933, Mr. I. S. Wilson, the World Camp Chief of the Scout movement, toured the country and submitted his report. It is necessary to realise that this report was prepared after a close and keen observation of the Scout movement in India. In this report the Camp Chief clearly expressed his views about the state of affairs in the Indian movement. He said: "Theoretically speaking, scouting is completely free from official control. Practically in some parts of India, this is not always the case. In the eyes of the general public, the Boy Scout Association is not regarded as completely divorced from officialdom. This opinion, false or true, is a serious hindrance to the proper development of scouting as a national institution. The reasons advanced, in support of this opinion, are many and various. The fact that the Governors of Provinces are Provincial Chief Scouts is a contributing cause. I do not say that any

one of those men have accepted the scout office as an official but the cumulative effect is obviously of some importance."* This will prove how the presence of Government officials, even in an *ex-officio* capacity created a distrust about the movement, in the eyes of the public.

Though outwardly the movement seemed to be an integrated whole, the differences between the semi-official, loyal people and the workers, who were dissatisfied at the turn the movement had taken, reached its climax and resulted in the splitting up of the Scout movement in India. It seemed as if these two groups were waiting for an opportune time to separate. This opportunity was provided by Lord Baden Powell himself. After touring India and attending the All India Scouts Jamboree, the Scout Chief had formed some opinion about the Indian movement. After his return to England it was expressed through the comments he made upon it. These comments were interpreted in various ways and one group always felt that they were insulting to India. The agitation against the statement, made by the Scout Chief, was so intense that the Scout Chief himself had to clarify his position. The episode, however, accentuated the urge to separate. It is not necessary to enter into discussion to show whether the interpretations of his comments, by the Indian critics were correct or otherwise. The story is too stale to be told again, but the fact remains that it accelerated the process of the division and decline of the movement.

Separate movement organised.—Two groups of workers evolved out of this controversy and the top ranking leaders like Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and Pandit Hirdaynath Kunzru started two separate move-

* I. S. Wilson, Camp Chief in Report by the Camp Chief on his tour in India —Nov, 1933 to March 1934.

ments. The group which broke away from the old movement was headed by Pandit Kunzru. It formed the new organisation, the Hindusthan Scouts. It formulated, as its aims, the reshaping of the Scout movement and moulding of the scout training on national lines. The Organisers of the Hindusthan Scouts decided to drop the word 'Emperor' from the scout's oath and substituted it by the word 'State'. Some other minor changes like inscribing 'Lotus token' on the scout badge and some changes in scout tests were made. This group always claimed to be the pioneer in the national scout movement and considered the original Boy Scouts movement as a semi-Government youth movement. The people in the other group proudly paraded the fact that it was the only movement having international affiliation. The changes made in the scout promise, tests and constitution by the seceders were regarded to be of no vital significance by the old group. During the last decade these two movements worked separately and there was no leadership which could bridge the gulf between the two movements. But the youth leaders, in particular, and social workers, in general, were losing their interests in both the movements. Whatever be the causes of the division in the Scout movement, in India, it is no use denying the fact that both the movements lost their value in public opinion.

Merger of rival groups.—The political developments, after 1942, were inconceivably sudden and swift, pregnant with deep historical significance. They culminated in the declaration of Indian independence when no one had planned for it. The liberation of India solved many problems including that of the Scout movement. In independent India, no question of flag, scout promise (expressing loyalty to King Emperor), badge, token and tests could

arise since the political freedom had swept away these symbolic points. The new Government had to help both the organisations. Therefore, not only the scout workers but the Government too thought of the merger of both the movements into a new scout organisation.

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, the Minister for Education in the Central cabinet, invited a conference of the representatives of both the movements. This conference was called, at Delhi, on behalf of the Educational Department and was presided over by Dr. Tara Chand. However, it could not come to a final decision. A meeting was held again, in Poona, where they found some points of agreement. To proceed further with the task of bringing about the merger of the Hindustan Scouts and the Boy Scouts Association, a meeting was held at the Government House, Nagpur, on the 18th Dec., 1948. His Excellency Sjt. Mangaldas Pakwasa presided. The common points of agreement were formulated. The new organisation should be called 'The Hind Scouts and Guides'; the scheme of merger should be drafted and prepared by Dr. Tara Chand, in consultation with the heads of the three Associations; Hon. Shri Justice Vivian Bose should be requested to redraft the memorandum of the Association of 'The Hind Scouts and Guides' in accordance with the decisions reached at the meeting. The meeting also decided the question of the composition of the Interim Committee and also discussed new organisational and training methods for developing the movement.

Training for New Movement.—The two movements will now merge together to form the new youth organisation. The formal ceremony, declaring the merger, will take place soon after the completion of the work, of the Interim Committee, consisting of

representatives of both the movements. It is necessary to recognise that it is a step forward in the development of the scout movement in the country. The organisers of the new movement should take sufficient care in planning the training programme for the new movement. It must be seen that the youths who join the movement feel that they are working for a national and a humanitarian cause. No democratic Government will allow the vicious exploitation of children for political purposes. It is high time that the people as a whole realise that it is no less than a murder of the mind when children are used, as instruments in the game of power politics, by various political parties.

In planning for the new organisation, questions about the training centre, like Gilwell Park Training centre, and the affiliation, to Imperial Headquarters, are very important. Here, it must be said that very few of the scout workers feel that our movement is badly in need of Imperial recognition. The Americans and the Russians have developed their movements without any external affiliation. Till an International Headquarters is organised, recognition is not an urgent need. So far as the Gilwell Park—the Imperial Training centre—is concerned, it must be stated that the scout workers, in India, should try to develop their own national training centre as efficient as other training centres abroad. Some efforts in this direction were made at Taradevi in the Punjab, and a suburb, near Bombay. These training centres should be given all possible help, for developing into efficient levers, for training youth leaders.

Camping was never overlooked in Scouting. But the question about the camping facilities was never seriously considered by the government as well as by social and educational institutions. The provincial and

the central government should extend all possible help to scout troops so far as camping, hiking and tracking are concerned. Educationists, in India, should also realise the importance of camping and nature contact in the lives of Cubs, Scouts and especially junior Rovers, whose minds are undergoing enormous and critical changes. The Government can aid the movement not only by providing camping facilities but also in other ways. It can lend the services of trained men to teach the boys subjects like map reading, musketry training, knotting, bridge building and fire fighting etc. which only experts can do.

Girl Guides Movement.—The movement for girls has not grown enough yet. It does not, still, embrace all activities and training schemes for Girl Guides. The organisers of the new movement should recognise this lag. To overcome this, they should draft a comprehensive scheme of developing the Girl Guides movement in India. The problem of leadership in the Girl Guides movement has not yet found any satisfactory solution. We have not got sufficient number of women teachers and social workers who can bear the responsibilities of leadership of the movement. The educated women folk, in India, have to shoulder this responsibility and should come forward, with zeal and love for children, to take the lead in the movement.

The question of leadership has not yet been solved even in the Boy Scouts movement. It is obvious that the movement, for its further development, can not completely depend merely upon the teachers. To make it universal, it is necessary to start hundreds of open troops, with leadership from outside, so that practically all school going children can be brought into it. Further it must be recognised that the academic division of scouting has always proved harmful

to the growth of the movement. Therefore, either the percentage of open troops to school troops should be enormously increased, or every school should be considered as a cultural centre where parents, staying around, can send their children to be trained as scouts. The new workers should also try to concentrate more on rural areas than the urban ones. Urbanisation of the movement has always kept it away from the masses. Open troops and development of the Rover movement are the best ways to approach the youths in the working classes. Scout troops should have a place in the labour welfare programme of the government Mills and Trade Unions. This would help to inculcate the consciousness of citizenship and create the spirit of scouting amongst our working youths.

It is sad to realise that, though having an extensive coast line, we have not developed the sea scouts group nor have we organised air troops. The scheme prepared by Pandit Shri Ram Bajpai, on behalf of Hindusthan Scouts, has now considered the possibility of the organisation of air troops. The new organisation must make the boys sea and air minded and form large naval and air scout crews.

Need for expansion.—The new movement cannot afford to be a movement of only the middle and upper classes as well as showy in nature and semi-official in form. It has to reach out to agricultural and industrial labour classes if it is to be a truly national movement. With the emergence of the organisational merger of both the movements, the perspective of its rapid any many-sided growth is unfolded. It will provide the scout workers with new opportunities. It will enlarge and enrich the scope of work for them. The objective of the movement viz., creation of citizens with culture and having a democratic out-

look, will no longer remain a formal but unfulfilled ideal just mentioned in the constitution of the Association. The new situation and the new organisation will help its achievement with the expansion of the many-sided, cultural and other activities of the organisation. Other youth movements which are inspired by narrow sectarian political motives will be on the wane. Absence of political youth movements may create a stalemate in the field for some time. The responsibility to satisfy this new demand shall be of the secular state and society through educational and cultural movements like scouting.

Exploitation of children as pawns in the game of power politics is a social crime. Leaders of national life should abstain from enmeshing children in politics but draw them into the movements which create cultural climate and radiate cultural suggestions to them, thereby aiding their free personality development.

Social Worker's duty.—The social worker must especially see that the growing energies of children find expression and are utilised in the proper way by proper persons for the development of children themselves. It is not only a question of the rights of children, as future members of a democratic nation, but also that of the human right of free development and growth. Basic principles of human liberty and democracy also demand that equal opportunities, for personality development, should be given to all children irrespective of class, caste or creed. When White House conferences and Declarations of Geneva are stressing and showing concern for the smallest right of the child, here, in India, the national potential of strength and intelligence which children of a nation represent, is criminally wasted. We must not also forget that such a cultural movement of children is, by its very

nature, international and can advance under the slogan "Children of the World, unite! Whatever is best with this generation must be given to you as you are future torch bearers of human culture. You have nothing to lose but your intellectual and social

slavery." It is true, no one can predict when this dream will materialise. The question at present before us is whether the new organisation 'The Hind Scouts and Guides' can fulfill this dream; and the question is yet unanswered.

STAFF TRAINING IN SOCIAL WORK

N. F. KAIKOBAD

Social work agencies in India suffer from lack of adequately trained personnel. In this article the writer emphasizes the need for giving on-the-job training to untrained staff and discusses various training methods.

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One of the factors that determines progress in any field of work is the success of that field in securing persons of intellectual capacity, of adjusted personality and of broad background, to assume, with adequate training and experience, positions of leadership. In India, today, we find that the field of social work is confronted with this problem. This profession is still in the process of development in this country. However, there are sufficient indications of the growing awareness, on part of public, that good heart and love for mankind are not sufficient to fulfill a social work task. It is increasingly recognised that social work has its unique approach to the problems in human relations and it demands a total investment of self in order to do an effective job. It needs specialized knowledge, skill and disciplined use of the self, to help individuals and groups to reach adjustments satisfactory to themselves and to the society. Public and private social agencies are becoming aware of the need of placing these tasks in the hands of professionally trained persons.

However, it is certain that for a number of years to come, existing institutions of professional training, in the country, will provide only a very small group of qualified persons to assume responsibility or provide leadership in the field. This is not a matter of surprise when we consider the fact that, in the United States, the census of 1940 enumerated nearly 75,000 persons engaged in this profession. A large number of these are people with little or practically

no training. It is estimated that approximately twenty per cent only are eligible for membership, of the American Association of social workers. Thus, even in a country where social work profession is so well advanced, there is this lack of trained personnel.

A cursory examination of the personnel of many of our social work agencies will reveal that the task of rendering direct service—the very core of social work—is carried on by ill-equipped persons, who at times, quite unknowingly, mar the very purpose of that specific service offered to persons in need. For instance, our philanthropy confirms dependency, social and psychological, instead of enabling the people to stand on their own feet. While lip service is rendered to the dignity and spiritual worth of an individual, a constant damage is done, to self-respect of the person in trouble, by unscientific and subjective attitude of those who administer the service of that agency. Add to this the lay attitude of the boards or some such groups of ultimate authority, their conservative outlook and resistance to any new idea and that completes the picture of most of our social service agencies.

Such a situation calls for a timely emphasis on giving some sort of orientation to modern concept of social work philosophy and method to the untrained staff of agencies. There can be no denial of the fact that our plans should make use of existing resources rather than starting from

scratch, which, in reality, is not possible. It is fundamental to build upon that which we already have, presuming that it furnishes a fairly firm foundation.

How they do it?—It will be interesting to examine how American agencies have tried to tackle the problem. By now, substantial professional literature has emerged in this field of staff training and development. Division of Technical Training of the Bureau of Public Assistance has developed considerable literature on training methods. The Family Welfare Association of America has also done a good promotional job in this area. The Fundamental concepts developed in the literature, brought out by these two Associations in the light of their experience, are applicable to other organisations also.

It may be well to define certain terms like 'In-service training', 'Staff development programme' and a more recent phrase like 'Development on the job.' The term 'in-service training' is used, by various writers, for the educational efforts, planned by an agency, during the orientation period, of a new employee, for a specific job there. It is an orientation period for all newly inducted workers, planned as a help towards making a 'good start on their job', and towards giving them a sense of direction in agency organisation. Thus it is a plan focussed on training for a specific job in an agency.

In-service training has a two-fold objective:

(1) To teach the mechanics of the job *i.e.* the details of the procedure and job organisation which are very essential for any new employee to master the work as quickly as possible. When a worker can handle mechanics of the job, with sureness and

considerable speed, he can organise his work more effectively. Otherwise much time and energy is wasted in trying to deal with them.

(2) To give sufficient understanding of the objectives and functions of the agency so that the worker may know, his own task against that background. In short, efforts are directed in acquainting a new worker with the objectives, resources and use of the agency in a proper way.

It must be pointed out that the in-service training is equally important for a trained but new worker in an agency. Because he too has to learn as much about the agency, its policy, and function as the new untrained worker.

In their larger aspects the terms 'Staff Development programme' and "Development on the Job" include the area of in-service training. Both the terms are used identically. If we are to differentiate the meaning of the terms 'training' and 'development' then let us say 'training' indicates something standardized or something that is viewed in terms of the learning of machinery, while 'development' connotes growth or something that is not standardised.

The term 'staff-development programme' indicates the ways and means of assisting staff members already on the job to do it effectively and with deeper understanding. Social work is not static. It is continually changing and improving. So the social work agencies are required to re-examine their methods, policy, procedure and even their goals and objectives in the light of both changing conditions and changing techniques.

The very idea of staff-development programme pre-supposes that the personnel policy and the human climate, in the agency,

make provisions for developmental opportunities for the staff members; i.e. learning facilities within the agency structure are consciously created.

Administration—a creative process.—The way an agency is administered has important implications for the staff upon whom depends effective operation of the services. It is a matter of relationship *with* and *between* people. This calls for a leadership of insight into the human behaviour, together with skill in helping people, to relate to one another because in the last analysis the materials for administration are ideas, experience and feelings of people. The administrator has to deal with all these factors because they are bound to influence the capacity of the staff members.

Harleugh Trecker says: "Our understanding of the nature of Social Work administration has evolved to the point that we now identify administration with process rather than techniques. We see administrative functions as widely distributed in contrast with authority centred in one individual, and we place administration in its proper setting as an inherent part of the whole social work process rather than merely a tool, adjunct or facilitating device." This approach calls for a new pattern of thinking. Ego satisfactions of the administrator are to be achieved on entirely new basis. It also calls for an ability to create free professional relationship through which staff members are enabled to develop their capacity as social workers.

The New Worker.—A new worker in an agency faces several problems. He has to learn a number of new things and make adjustments in various directions. It is natural that in the initial stages he experiences certain amount of anxiety, due to feeling of uncertainty and newness of

the things. His relationship with the other members of the staff is also a source of worry. The administrator or the supervisor must realize that the new comer may not have the actual experience in the field but he does have some preconceived notions of social work. Most of the workers bring their feelings to the job. It is possible that a different approach or notion than ones own may set up some resistance in the worker which may block his way to achieve mastery over his task. If the supervisor is conscious of this factor he will certainly adjust his programme of orientation accordingly. However, this is the area that is likely to be overlooked especially by those who focus their entire attention on routine of the job. We do not rule out the importance of teaching the new worker the mechanics of his job, because that is essential for the agency as well as the worker, who will get the feeling of security and success. This feeling will contribute to his learning, more readily, other aspects of the work. When the routine is handled, with sureness and speed, the worker will be emotionally free to deal with other areas of adjustment in the agency.

It is desirable that the agencies should have a staff manual or handbook containing all necessary information about them. It must explain the agency's philosophy, purpose as well as fundamental procedures. However, the best training results for interaction between the supervisor and the individual worker. It is matter of time and type of experience and assistance in work life that will determine to what extent the worker will accept the philosophy of social work and adopt certain techniques out of deep conviction.

The relationship between the worker and the supervisor has a lot to contribute to the worker's development. The supervisor

will have to understand and accept the struggle that worker is going through in the process of incorporating new knowledge. Sometimes he will have to act as a consultant, sometimes adopt direct teaching methods, sometimes suggest reading on a particular problem. What is most essential is good personnel practice which makes far increased satisfaction for the worker. He must be made to feel that he belongs to the agency. Our agencies have overlooked the importance of creating a good group life, in the agency structure, which exerts a positive influence upon the worker.

Staff Meeting and Committees.—Regular staff meeting can become an important medium in staff development if they are not considered as just routine procedure of agency. If the group process set into motion, by the agenda of the meeting, is consciously affected by the executive who usually chairs such meetings can become a training ground for expression for the staff members. Mere expression of the feelings has a value for the worker even though the reasons of the feelings may not always be rational. The way the chairman utilizes each point or question, raised by the staff member to introduce a generic principle of social work in the discussion, will surely prove an enriching experience for the staff.

Training of the worker is furthered by participating in a committee formed by the agency as a study group for a specific problem. Such committees and staff study groups stimulate collective thinking and encourage the workers to explore the field in a systematic way.

Social agencies in the West usually have co-operative planning with other sister agencies or appoint the staff members to work out a programme with lay groups.

This certainly widens the worker's horizon and also helps him to see his own task as well the function of his agency against wider social background. We too can profitably try out such a venture in co-operative education. Membership in inter-agency committees give opportunity for thoughtful consideration and mutual discussion of problems which have broad significance. They may result in decision or suggestions, which may affect a change in the policy of the agency, or may lead to some sort of social action. So far as the individual staff member is concerned such a membership brings him into contact with others whose work and experience are different but whose general objectives are the same. It also calls for the best an individual can give on the subject and may encourage the study and preparation which broadens his perspective and increases his ability to participate helpfully in a group discussion.

Institute Method.—Recent efforts, by voluntary organizations, to give some sort of introduction to social work called 'training courses', for lay persons, have at times created an impression in the minds of those who attend such talks that they are receiving education which might be equivalent to training in a professional institution of social work. It must be recognised that such training courses are of great help towards public understanding of social work in India. However, it must be clearly understood that these efforts are far from professional training which together with imparting theoretical knowledge helps a trainee to develop certain proficiency accompanied by disciplined thinking, systematic analysis and objective self-evolution. Similarly short-term study efforts, planned by the agencies, to help the staff members in having a better understanding of the problems related to the agency, are in no

way a substitute for intensive professional education. Such a short period of study of specific aspect of the agency work is known as 'institute method'.

Kenneth Pray defines 'institute' as "small groups of workers in a series of sessions extending over several days are enabled to study intensively some specific aspects of their professional practice or its underlying problems". For example Children's Aid Society may hold an 'institute' to discuss emotional problems of delinquent children or a Community Centre may hold a series of sessions on group work method if it decides to emphasise personality development through the centre programme.

Those 'institutes' will have greater value if the staff members have a legitimate share in its planning. They may suggest certain problems that they face in their day to day work to be presented at the 'institute'. Help of a specialist or a consultant from outside may greatly enhance the quality of discussions at the 'institutes'.

What is the time limit of an 'institute'? Answer to this question depends on the subject matter to be covered as well as the time available. It may be one day, one week or even longer. It has been noted that the 'institute' proves more effective when there is no pressure of the daily work during this period.

Several schools of social work in United States offer 'institutes' during vacation months for the experienced employees of the agencies. It has been found that the workers and the agencies have appreciated the value of such an experience since it serves as a refresher period to the worker, who is liable to fall in a rut, and as a result become completely out of touch with the wider fields and new developments. 'Institutes' offered by the School of Social Work help the employed worker to gain

a new point of view and re-examine his own or his agency practice of social work. They also provide an opportunity to share the experiences with people engaged in similar work in various parts of the country.

What is more important is using the results of the 'institute' discussion. Conclusions arrived at should lead to improved agency practice. A small committee of workers may be appointed for further consideration of particular topics, to experiment with certain possible changes and make definite recommendations regarding improvement in administrative practice, supervisory method or the application of skills in rendering direct service to the clients.

Self-Education.—It has been the experience of the agencies that the attendance at 'institutes' has resulted in more effective staff meetings, more interest in reading on professional subject and increased knowledge shown in improved performance. It has become a part of personnel practices, in western agencies, where the executives refer to articles in the periodicals or recent books, which have a bearing on the subjects discussed at the 'institute' or the staff meeting. Sometimes one or more workers undertake to present a digest of their reading to other members of the staff in the form of discussion. It will be profitable to have a staff library for which a reading committee might review the books, advise the agency whether to buy them for the staff library or not. American libraries give a long-time loan of books to the agencies. The libraries should be willing to purchase books recommended by the agencies. In some of the agencies a member of the office staff is assigned the task of submitting a list of books or articles from the professional periodicals or the book reviews appeared in social work magazines.

Indian Conference of Social Work.—

Growing interest in improved social work practice, was evidenced in some of the sectional meetings of the third Indian Conference of Social Work held at Delhi in last December. It was gratifying to see so many voluntary socially-minded persons, experienced employees of various agencies and a tiny band of professionals thrash out in a very frank manner some of the vital issues of social work today. Such sessions surely provide an opportunity for learning what is going on in other parts of the country and in other branches of the field, besides ones own area of immediate interest. Some of the sectional meetings, did stimulate creative thinking on a number of practical problems that are generic to social work.

Attendance at such conferences is undoubtedly a supplemental resource for staff training. It is advisable that the staff members selected to represent the agency at the conference are chosen from various levels of the agency. It will certainly help if some of the board members or managing

trustees of the agencies also attended the conference which can help them to gain a broad perspective. The range of subject matter presented at such Conference is varied and large, that some sort of help is necessary for a Junior staff member to prepare for participation in sectional meetings of specific aspect of social work to which the agency is devoted.

An exchange of workers between the Agencies.—This is one of the recent trends in the area of staff development programme. Such a plan varies from two weeks' to two or more months' experience in a sister agency in the same town or another part of the country.

In this paper an attempt is made to lay down certain possible methods of staff development and to show that under the present-day conditions an agency can make use of all possible methods for bringing to its staff new knowledge and better understanding of the job by creating certain facilities and stimulating the interest of the individuals to increase their social work skills.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN BOMBAY CITY AND SUBURBS

MRS. SUSHEEL G. PENDSE

Pre-primary age is an important period in the life of an individual. As such the value of education imparted during infancy cannot be overemphasized. Private schools for children have come into existence in India during the last few years especially due to the efforts of philanthropists. Yet, it is disappointing that in this important field of activity Government has not shown adequate interest. The writer who made a critical study of the amenities in schools deals with the various aspects of pre-primary education in Bombay City and Suburbs and makes constructive proposals for starting and administering such schools.

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The school plays an important part in the personality development of a child. The influence of the pre-school education is particularly marked, as the first five years are the most important ones in the life of an individual. The personality traits, which develop later on, are rooted during these early years. Having realised the important role of pre-primary education, it was considered worth-while to make a critical examination of the facilities available for it in Bombay City and suburbs. A brief history of the development of different types of schools, for pre-primary education, in western countries, will not be, it is hoped, out of place, here.

Child Education.— Interest in the child is of recent origin. In the primitive days the child was an object of cruelty and abuse. No attempt was made to understand him; the purpose of education was to mould him according to the views of the adult.

A change in this attitude started with "Comenius", a philosopher, in the 18th century. According to him the education of children should be based on the particular developments of their ages. He divided the school life into four main divisions; from infancy to the age of six he called "the Mother School". He said that the teacher must make constant appeals to the understanding of the child

through his sense of perception. The children should not be disciplined harshly. In teaching them the teacher should proceed from easy to difficult, from general to specific, from known to unknown. Thus "Comenius" planted the germs of modern education, and initiated the attempts to study the child as an individual, rather than putting him into the pattern provided by adults.

A further contribution to the child education, was made by John Locke in the 18th Century. He laid stress on habit formation, reasoning and physical activity. Later, in 1762, Locke's theories were further developed by Rousseau. He said that the life of the child had activities which were normal to that age and education should seek to follow them. The child's learning should take place through the senses rather than through memory.

The current view then was to mould the child into a good being, by teaching him manners and social virtues. In the 18th century Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, a Swiss, emphasised that the function of education was not to teach manners but to evolve the child's natural powers and cultivate his human side and reasoning. He took the seed thought of Rousseau that sense impression was the foundation of human knowledge, and enlarged the

conception as being organic and proceeding according to laws. And he advocated the training of different faculties, and their development became his watchword. He said that real education must develop the child as a whole mentally, physically and morally and train the head, heart and hand.

Kindergarten Method.—Johann Friedrich Froebel, a German educationist, made an astounding contribution in this field. He developed the Kindergarten method in which songs, games and occupations, involving self-acting, were the dominant characteristics. The object of this system was to help the child to develop himself by giving expression to his hidden impulses. Self activity was the basis of the work in the Kindergarten method. Through his achievements the child lays bare his inner self.

Play is the only activity of the early stages of growth. Children's ideals and feelings are expressed mainly in singing, in making gestures and in constructing objects. So Froebel thought of teaching everything through these activities. He invented gifts or occupations in the Kindergarten method. The gifts gave the idea of certain activities. These activities were called the occupations. The occupations included a number of different constructions—with paper, sand, clay, wood and other materials.

Montessori Method.—Another system of child education developed in Italy, in the past century. The Montessori method, as it is called, had its origin in the efforts to educate the mentally defective children. The idea originated from the work of a physician during the French Revolution. This method was further improved upon by Edward Seguin, also a Frenchman. It was successfully employed for educating the mentally retarded children.

Later on Seguin's ideas were developed by Madame Montessori. The success

achieved on mentally deficient children made her feel that the system would prove very useful with the normal children too. She further refined the original gifts of Froebel and designed didactic apparatus for the development of each of the five senses. She thought it necessary to lay down the objective as a three-year old child was unable to define it for himself. According to her it was necessary to tell the child to do a task in a certain way laid down for him. By trial and repetition when the child accomplished his task, it gave him a joy of satisfaction, which was essential for his growth.

This system is considered as providing self-education in a very limited sense. The auto-education advocated by Madame Montessori is now looked upon as useless and causing more danger than of any help. With its emphasis on sense training it did not find any favour in America, because advanced studies on children has shown that child as he grows develops his physical, mental and emotional powers. In England some schools tried the use of Montessori material, though the method followed was essentially Froebelian.

Nursery School.—The origin of the Nursery school is found in the attempts of few ambitious individuals during the 18th century. As early as 1740, Oberloin, a teacher, started a school for poor farmers' children at Wallback, in France. His object was to take care of the young children while the parents worked in the field. By the 18th century, the general public was becoming keenly aware of the need for humanitarian attitude towards the child. Many nursery and infant schools were founded with the help of philanthropically minded men. During the latter half of the 19th century the Froebelian ideas brought about a change in these institutions. The school environment was made cheerful; opportu-

nities were provided for free play and contact with nature. In 1816 Robert Owen, a millowner, started the first nursery school in England. They became popular and many were started all over England and Scotland. They were mainly for the benefit of the children of the working mothers; to look after them during the latter's absence.

In 1919, 20 teachers were invited to U.S.A. to demonstrate the English idea of a Nursery School. At the start the English and the American schools differed in their outlook. In England these schools were established mainly for the care of the neglected children and as a remedy for the unsatisfactory economic conditions, while in America they were established for child study, the emphasis being on maximum growth of the child. However, the present outlook and purpose of the nursery schools in the two countries is similar. In England the importance of the Nursery Schools in serving the psychological and social needs are recognised. Similarly in America the importance of nursery schools for slum children is now admitted.

In the 20th century much thought was given to the literature on child education. Many educationists and philosophers made their contributions to the study of the growing child. Freud, a Viennese Psychiatrist, said that abnormalities are caused by repression as children and that most of the mental diseases originated in the childhood. Hence it was considered necessary to provide a healthy childhood to children. The contributions of these great philosophers, educationists and scientists recently created a new interest and outlook towards the problem of child welfare.

Pre-School Education in India.—Interest in the pre-school education was well-advanced in the western countries before it

began to be shown in India. Even today the interest shown in this country is not so widespread as in other countries. However, some powerful organisations are carrying on propaganda in order to awaken interest in the pre-school child. The method advocated by these organisations is the Montessori method which has elicited a very enthusiastic response from many quarters.

Perhaps this enthusiasm can be explained as a reaction against the deplorable conditions existing in the native schools. In contrast with the drab unattractive classroom conditions in the old fashioned schools, where much is learned by memorizing notes, the Montessori method, with concrete objects and materials for teaching, must have had a great appeal. Gijabhai Badheka was the pioneer of this movement in this country. He is known to have started the first Montessori school. Nutan Bal Shikshan Sangh, at Bhavnagar was founded, in 1926, to give impetus to child education on montessori lines. Later many schools for young children were started by wealthy individuals and welfare organisations. They were mainly the result of private enterprise, the outcome of the achievements of few ambitious individuals. Madame Montessori herself came to India and started a school and training college, for teachers, at Adayar (1935), and in recent years training centres were started in big cities like Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad and Sholapur. These centres have been recognised by the Government.

The Nutan Bal Shikshan Sangh through its Journal, Shikshan Patrika, tried to acquaint teachers and parents with the new thoughts in education. The Sangh examined the schools affiliated to it. Since 1946 it is running a school at Bordi—a town one hundred miles away from Bombay—for pre-primary teachers, in rural areas,

and has opened Bal Wadis for village children. The Sangh holds conferences on Child education and conducts exhibitions. A very big exhibition was held in Bombay in 1948.

Thus these schools are doing a great deal of propaganda and as a result many parents are sending their children to these schools mostly with a view that they should pass the matriculation examination at a younger age. Thus the emphasis is still on formal learning.

Pre-Primary Schools in Bombay City and Suburbs.—For the study of the pre-primary education in Bombay city and suburbs* 30 schools were selected from different localities representing various socio-economic stratas. Of these, 23 schools follow the Montessori method, five the Kindergarten and two the modern nursery methods. The number of schools selected from different localities is as under:—

No. of Schools	Localities
2	Fort
2	Marine Drive
2	Malabar Hill, Beach Candy
2	Cumbala Hill
3	Gamdevi
6	Girgaum
4	Dadar, Matunga
3	Byculla, Parel (meant for poor children in B. D. Chawls)
5	Suburbs (Khar Vile Parle, Andheri, Juhu)
1	Kalbadevi-Muslim area
Total 30 schools	

Majority of these schools are situated in the areas inhabited by the middle and upper middle classes (e.g. Girgaum, Gamdevi, and the suburbs). The parents of

the children in these areas are generally educated and cultured. The income group ranges roughly from Rs. 300 to Rs. 800 per month. The middle and the upper middle classes are combined together because the children belonging to these two classes have more or less the same cultural background and differ very little in their needs. Four schools are situated in the Marine Drive and Malabar Hill areas. These are the best localities occupied by the richest class of society. The parents are well-educated and are either business men or government officials. Three schools situated in Parel and Byculla, in the Municipal chawls, are provided for poor children. These are one-room tenements and the living conditions are unhygienic. The parents are generally illiterate. Many of them are sweepers; others do menial jobs in the municipalities or mills. The income of these families varies from Rs. 50 to 150 per month.

Most of these schools are run either by individuals or by welfare organisations. The government grant is given very rarely to these institutions. So far the government has taken very little interest in the pre-primary education.

These schools can be classified on the following language basis:—

SCHOOL MEDIUM	
Medium	No. of Schools
English	12
Marathi	8
Gujerathi	9
Urdu	1
Total	30

This table makes clear that the pre-primary schools are gaining popularity in the various communities in Bombay.

* The thesis submitted by the writer for her diploma.

Distribution of Children.—The total number of children attending these 30 schools, according to the school registers, is 1499. The average number of children, per school, is about 50. The following frequency table shows an irregular distribution of children in these schools:—

No. of Children	No. of Schools
0 — 19	1
20 — 39	3
40 — 59	4
60 — 79	6
80 — 99	4
100 — 119	3
120 — 139	6
140 — 159	1
160 — 179	1
180 — 199	1
Total	30

This study has concerned itself with the education of children below six years. However, it was found that these pre-primary schools have many over-aged children. In one school it was observed that three children were on the roll call of pre-primary school but actually they were attending the first primary class. However, since the Bombay Municipality has recently fixed six years as the minimum age for entrance to pre-primary school these children were enrolled in pre-primary school as they were below that age limit.

CHILDREN OVER SIX YEARS OF AGE

No. of children over six years of age	No. of schools
1 — 6	10
7 — 12	5
Above 12	6
Total	21

School fees.—

Fees per month in Rupees	No. of schools
Free schools.	3
0 — 4	1
5 — 9	14
10 — 14	4
15 — 19	4
20 — 24	2
25 — 29	1
30 — 34	1
Total	30

The table shows that the fees charged in pre-primary schools are rather high. This may be due to the insufficient government support to them. The welfare organisation like the Naigaum Welfare Association and the Women's Council, Bombay Presidency, are running three Balak Mandirs for very poor children.

USE OF TEXT BOOKS

Text books	Picture and story books	Hand made books
English : 8		
Gujerati : 7	18	8
Marathi : 1		

In many schools text books are used. The hand-made books are on the whole meaningless and uninteresting to the child.

Use of text books by children at pre-primary stage is unsuitable and hence is not recommended by the authorities. However, a free and extensive use of picture books, with big suggestive pictures, which easily develop a story at a glance, which encourage reading readiness in children and give them information about common animals, flowers, vehicles and objects with which they come into contact daily in their life without any formal education is highly recommended and

forms a very important part of the education of the child. Home made books designed on the above lines are useful, e.g. simple and easy translation into vernacular the well-known English stories such as "The Little Red Hen". It is accepted at all hands that reading in no case is desirable at this stage. And it is always the teacher who is expected to develop small simple stories from the books.

School time.—Majority of these schools are held in the afternoon. This is the time when children should be having a nap or resting at home and as such the schools' timing and routine is not suitable to the child's needs.

SCHOOL TIME	No. OF SCHOOLS
Morning	8
Afternoon	
11 a.m. or 12 noon to 4 p.m.	16
Whole day	
10 a.m. to 3 p.m.	4
9 a.m to 5 p.m.	2

From the above table it can be seen that the majority of the schools are held in the afternoon while only a few are run in the morning and about six the whole day.

It is agreed that the most suitable time for the pre-primary school is the few hours in the morning, when children can freely play in the open air, which is very essential for their physical development. Morning time is the most active time and in the afternoon the child needs a nap. In the majority of the pre-primary schools children are kept very busy at a time when they really should take rest.

Indoor and outdoor space.—Indoor space in the majority of the schools, is between 0 and 9 sq. ft. per child. Only five schools out of 30 have space between 20 and 30

sq. ft. per child whereas the required space is 35 sq. ft. per child. The outdoor space conditions are still worse. As many as nine schools have absolutely no outdoor space, while eight schools have space between 1 and 19 sq. ft. Only one school has an ideal outdoor open space. The required outdoor space is 75 to 100 sq. ft. per child.

INDOOR AND OUTDOOR SPACE PER CHILD

space per child in sq. ft.	In-door space No. of schools	out-door space No. of schools
0 — 9	13	17
10 — 19	10	6
20 — 29	5	—
30 — 39	1	—
40 — 49	—	2
50 — 59	—	1
60 — 69	1	—
70 — 79	—	1
	Total 30	27

The above table shows the provision of space available in the schools included in the present survey. Only two schools have more than adequate indoor space i.e. between 30 and 39 sq. ft. and 60 and 69 sq. ft. respectively. As many as 13 schools have space below 9 sq. ft., about 10 schools 10 to 19 sq. ft., five schools 20 to 29 sq. ft. Thus it will be clear that three-fourth of the schools are lacking badly the minimum space requirements. It will be also seen that the conditions regarding out-door space are still worse. As many as nine schools have absolutely no out-door space i.e. nearly one-third of the schools have below 10 sq. ft. per child. Only three schools have space between 40 and 60 sq. ft. The small children need a large space for vigorous activities and as such American authorities have recommended about 75 to 100 sq. ft. of open space per child. None of the schools, with the exception of one, satisfy this essential requirement.

Three schools have playgrounds where students of the higher classes play about making it impossible for the younger children to derive any advantage of the outdoor space. Only one school comes to the ideal requirements. This school is located on the sea side, in a small hutment. The outdoor space is only 25 to 35 sq. ft. However, this insufficiency is ignorable because the outside space is large, quite shady and practically all the activities are carried out in the open air, where there is a cemented platform. As the school is situated on the sea shore it has additional advantage; children can play on rock and shady beach.

Small children are always very active and need a large space. Modern American opinion, on the requirements of space per child in a good nursery school is in-door 35 sq. ft. and out-door 75 to 100 sq. ft. It is suggested that the space should be adequate, warm and free from risks so

that children can freely move about in the school premises. It is good to have a portion of the ground cemented so that children can play there with kiddy cars, pull toys etc. Such space requirements should be satisfied in a nursery school specially in a big, crowded city like Bombay where the problem of space is so very acute that there is hardly any space, even a small corner in the house, which the child can claim as his own. It is very necessary for the nursery school to provide adequate, well-protected open-air space which is very essential for the physical development of the child during the early years of growth.

Creative and imaginative activities.—

The schools provide very scanty equipment for creative activities such as painting, play in the sand etc. As to the imaginative play such as dolls, housekeeping etc. only three schools have provided them. Others forbade it as they claimed that it distracted children from normal learning.

TABLE SHOWING ACTIVITIES IN THE DIFFERENT SCHOOLS

Indoor Material	No. of schools	Out-door material	No. of schools
(1) Imaginative and dramatic play Material, dolls corner	3	swing	10
(2) Active play and Physical development. Pull toys	6	Incline	6
(3) Blocks *	27	Sca-saw	8
MATERIAL FOR CREATIVE ACTIVITIES			
(4) Crayons and paints	C. 30 P. 7	climbing apparatus	6
(5) Paper cutting, folding	29	Balancing Board	3
(6) Clay and Plastics	10	Double bar	7
(7) Jig-saw puzzle	14	Crate	2
		Jungle Jym	2
		Sand Box	3

* The blocks used are tiny and not large and hollow as they should be.

From the above table one can have a both in-door and out-door, in various clear idea of the play material equipment, schools. Whilst most of the schools do

not provide enough play material for outdoor games, the condition is a little better in the provision of material for in-door activities. Even in this matter most of the schools, Kindergarten and Montessori, fail to provide material for free dramatic and constructive play. It is well-known that a young child should be amply provided with an extensively large amount of variety of play materials which would develop his different abilities in the fullest manner.

Who Leads the Activities? Teacher or Child:—

	No. of schools
Child-centered activities	11
Teacher-centred activities	19

The first column in the table indicates the schools in which a child selects his own play material and asks the teacher the particular activity in which he needs assistance. For *e.g.* he picks up a story book and asks the teacher to develop the story with the help of the pictures or he takes out building blocks and starts building various things in a free manner initiated by himself. The child has free scope to develop his intrinsic abilities through the play material provided in the schools. In some cases the children go to the extent

of even asking the teacher for a certain group activity by saying "Let us go out and play" or "We want music".

In the second group it is the teacher who determines, to a large extent, what the child should do. In some of the schools referred to in this column, a special timetable is arranged indicating the particular time for the particular activity, and this practice is rigidly followed. In some cases a particular activity is almost forced on the children. It is the teacher who plays a dominant role and the children play only a secondary part. They quietly obey the teacher in the activities prescribed by the teacher. If the teacher dominates the activities the danger is that the children would lack in the development of the initiative.

Personality Development.—It is a well-known psychological truth that the personality of a man is largely an outcome of his development during the early days. The qualities such as initiative and self-determination are very important. They are natural. Therefore, during the plastic formative years, of a child's development, full and free scope, under the proper guidance of an expert teacher, should be offered to develop them in a full and natural manner.

TIME FOR FREE PLAY

	No. of schools	Duration
Real Free play.	5 which includes 2 schools out of 22 given below.	1 to 2 hours. 5 out of which 2 have less than 1 hour more than 2 hours Nil
Free Play with Montessori material	22	1 to 2 hours 21 out of which 2 have less than 1 hour more than 2 hours 1
No free play (rigid time table system)	5	

Free play with Montessori material means that the child is allowed to choose any of the didactic material which he is allowed to handle, in a set manner. By free play is meant that the teacher guides and shows the uses of the material. Afterwards the children are allowed to handle the material as they like. Children are allowed to have any dramatic and imaginative play.

The material provided in the schools is mostly didactic. Children have to play with the didactic apparatus in a set manner and there is no provision for real free play arising from the spontaneous interest in the child.

In the Kindergarten schools regular periods are laid out. Each activity is carried out for thirty minutes. Balance is maintained between active and quiet habits; the oral and the writing work. There are only two schools run on modern lines. The routine in these schools is as follows. They meet in the morning and are out at noon. The routine is very flexible. The first one hour is devoted for free play, mostly out-doors. Then comes a break of thirty minutes, during which period children have fruit juice and rest on rugs or mats. In many cases this is followed by one hour outdoor activities such as story telling, music, play at crayons, paints etc.

THE SCHOOL ROUTINE IS BRIEFLY
SUMMARISED AS FOLLOWS

1½ hours.	free play with didactic apparatus in a set manner.
¾ to 1 hour	Mid-afternoon lunch and recess.
1½ hours	light activities e.g. music, story telling, drawing, folding cutting, pasting etc.

It was found that in most of the schools group activities were initiated by the teacher. The teacher arranged the dances and dra-

matic scenes. In only six schools the group life in children was spontaneous. They came together drawn by play material such as sand and construction of blocks.

Use of Musical Instruments.—Music is essential at this stage of self-expression. It plays an important part in the personality development. It develops the aesthetic sense of the child.

Children enjoy rhythmic activities. Instruments like drum and dancing sticks are liked by them. With the help of these instruments simple rhythmic dances, march keeping to time in tune with the instrument, can be very easily conducted. They enjoy these activities and as such these activities should be encouraged and properly guided. However, very few schools were observed to be using them. The following table shows that the schools under observation have inadequate musical equipment.

Musical instrument	No. of schools
Piano	8
Harmonium	6
Dilruba	3
Drum and Tamborines	3
Dancing sticks	2
Gramophone	3
Cymbal	19
No instruments	3

It can be seen from the above table that very few schools use instruments like drum and dancing sticks which the children can use.

Furniture equipment.—Furniture and toilet provided in the pre-primary schools should be child-size and suited to children's needs. They encourage self-help. It was found that most of the schools have no child size furniture and proper toilet arrangements.

FURNITURE EQUIPMENT

	chatais, small mats and stools	Child size tables and chairs	Long benches for arranging the play material	child size cupboards and shelves	no furniture equipment
No. of schools	17	12	12	15	ones school has absolutely no

furniture. Three schools have no furniture referred to either in col. 3 or Col. 4.

Most of the schools have very little furniture. For want of space chairs and stools have been replaced by chatais, mats and stools. Since chatais are used in Indian homes the children are used to squat on them. Secondly they are very cheap. Majority of the schools keep the materials locked up in a cupboard and during school hours arrange them on long benches. Many teachers do it with the help of children.

Fifteen schools, out of thirty, have provided open shelves and cupboards. Yet the furniture equipment is not adequate. One of the factors which make up a good nursery school is proper and adequate furniture equipment. It encourages self-help. Children are able to make free and proper use of the articles. Child size open shelves have another value. The arrangement of play equipment on these shelves encourages children to select the material independently. Thus it encourages self-guidance. It may be said that the schools have not realised the importance of furniture equipment in the normal development of the child. Thus the majority of the schools have very little furniture and that too is not adequate.

Sanitary arrangements.—In the schools observed the conditions regarding the sanitary arrangements are far from satisfactory. Common use of glass and towel, lack of provision for boiled water, for drinking purpose, and mirrors and improper and unsuitable lavatories and washing arrangements are the common features of these schools. In a majority of the pre-primary schools, on the Montessori lines, the use of two buckets (one bucket for storing water and the other used as wash basin), the use of three towels (common for all children) one for hand and face, second for feet and a third, strangely enough, for wiping the nose was noticed. These conditions need a thorough overall and proper hygienic habits should be introduced at this early stage of the child's development.

Necessity of clean and suitable toilet, proper and convenient arrangements for washing purposes, use of soap and adequate arrangements for providing clean drinking water to children need not be over-emphasised. Regarding drinking water arrangements it is needless to say that it should be boiled and stored in a clean vessel and each child should be provided with a glass.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR DRINKING WATER

	common glass	separate glass for child	boiled water	unboiled water
No. of schools	24	6	6	24

Similarly washing equipments should consist of suitable washing towel, basin, mirror and soap, preferably separate, for each child. The use of separate towels

is recommended for considerations too well specially susceptible to infection. known to be discussed since children are

WASHING ARRANGEMENTS

material	No. of Schools		No. of Schools	
(1) Soap	Provided	21	not provided	9
(2) Towels	separate	5	common	25
(3) Washing arrangements	proper basin, tap	2	use of buckets	9
(4) General cleanliness	clean	14	unclean	16

The use of common lavatories and bathrooms by children in a nursery school and students in the higher classes is harmful from various considerations. It is very essential to have commodes and lavatories, specially built for the use of children, and this will encourage self-help, proper and healthy habits in them at the pre-primary school age.

TOILET ARRANGEMENTS

special child size arrangements	common high school lavatories and bathrooms
No. of schools 7	23

Teaching personnel.—The teacher plays an important role in the pre-primary school and as such needs major consideration. This includes three main topics. They are:—

1. Proportion between teachers and children in each school.
2. Educational qualifications of the teachers
3. Aims and objectives prescribed by the teachers.

The teacher-pupil ratio in these schools is most unsatisfactory. In majority of the schools one adult looks after 30 children. In as many as ten schools one teacher has

to look after more than 40 children. The teacher pupil-ratio ought to be one teacher for 10 or 12 children.

PROPORTION BETWEEN TEACHERS AND CHILDREN

No. of children per teacher	No. of schools
1 — 10	2
11 — 20	9
21 — 30	9
31 — 40	7
41 — 50	3

Total 30

As seen from the above table only two schools provide an ideal condition of one teacher for 8 to 10 children. In some of the schools ayahs are appointed and they attend to some of the needs of the children. They share the teachers' load and, therefore, have been considered as members of the staff and included in the teacher-pupil ratio. Even if such inclusions are made the adult-pupil ratio is unsatisfactory. The teachers are poorly qualified and the training is inadequate. This together with the insufficient number of

teachers gives evidence of a lack of proper teacher personnel in the pre-primary schools.

Education Qualifications of the pre-primary school Teachers	No. of Teachers
(1) Matric Diploma in Montessori	29
(2) Non-matric Diploma in Kindergarten	18
(3) Senior cambridge or Matric Diploma in Kindergarten	14 S. C. II; Matric 3
(4) Vernacular final Diploma primary teachers	8
(5) Vernacular final Diploma in Kindergarten	1
(6) London Montessori Diploma	3
(7) Graduates of Women's University, Poona Montessori Diploma	5
(8) Matric Diploma in secondary teachers	7
(9) Ordinary graduates No special training	3
(10) Non-matric without any special qualification	8
(11) Montessori training received privately	4
(12) Graduates and kindergarten training	1
Total	101

This table shows the educational qualifications of the teachers. Most of them are either Montessori, or kindergarten trained or holding primary teacher's diploma. It is desirable to have more highly educated persons than those engaged in teaching at present. At least a graduate of the Indian Women's University, possessing special qualifications, for pre-primary teaching on modern lines, should be on the staff of the pre-primary school.

Pending the institution of a good training course, for teachers of pre-primary schools, lectures on child psychology and modern methods of teaching should be arranged for those already in the field such as the Montessori and kindergarten teachers most of whom do not possess the adequate qualifications for being appointed in pre-primary schools.

It may be emphatically pointed out that primary or secondary trained teachers or even graduates without special qualifications cannot be considered as eligible for appointment in pre-primary schools.

Objectives.—Inadequate understanding of the educational principles and objectives was revealed by the teachers in their enumeration of the school objectives. The following table shows that very few teachers thought of the development of the child's education. The objectives given by the head teachers of each school are divided into four main categories, as shown in the table below.

Objectives of pre-primary education as given by the head teacher	No. of schools
(1) To develop social virtues like co-operation, discipline and good manners	8
(2) Sense training through play with montessori equipment	5
(3) Introduction of school life in a pleasant familiar setting	10
(4) To provide the material that would aid and supplement the growth of the child	2
(5) not mentioned	3
Total	28

In the remaining two schools, one a Muslim pre-primary school, the head

teacher said that the objective was to encourage muslim children to learn and she considered that the nursery school was the best way to attract children to learn. In the other school, in Girgaum, it was said that the minimum age limit for admission to pre-primary school laid by the Municipality was 6 years. A pre-primary class naturally became a necessity as in the opinion of the head-teacher the child was quite fit to start learning at a tender age of five.

In the first group the objectives included encouragement of co-operation, discipline and good manners. By co-operation the teacher meant that when children, at that tender age came to the school automatically learn the spirit of co-operation. By discipline and good manners the teacher meant such acts as standing in rows, keeping back things, attending the prayer sung by the teacher while meals were served etc. Teachers thought that following the habits would gradually develop inner discipline in the children. These are in fact the ideas of an adult followed rigidly by a child and give no scope for the free evolution and development of the real meaning of the above virtues from the point of view of the child's understanding. Really speaking they should evolve out from within by itself. The school should stress on the development of the child.

Objectives given in the second group lay particular emphasis on the development of the five senses through play with the montessori sensorial apparatus. Modern authorities on pre-primary education lay emphasis on the natural growth of the child rather than an artificial development of the five senses. The child grows as a whole and not as segments as implied in the montessori course.

The third and fourth group of objectives namely introduction of school life in

a pleasant setting and supply of material that would aid and supplement the natural growth of the child are in fact a few as indicated earlier. Of the real objectives agreed upon by modern authorities on pre-primary education only two schools whose objectives are mentioned in the fourth column have really been able to provide adequate materials.

In view of the recent changes in the outlook and modern approach to the whole topic of pre-primary education necessary modifications would have to be introduced in the objectives so that a pre-primary school could really provide necessary material and opportunities that supplemented the child's natural growth.

Modern idea.—The modern idea is that children learn best by experience; they should not be forced to learn. The school should provide them a variety of play equipment and establish a certain routine to develop proper habits in them. The teacher should not interfere with or direct play, but should encourage the child to become independent. The growing popularity of montessori schools raises a question as to how far they are really satisfying the needs of the young child as we know of them, through the concepts based on modern research.

The nursery school helps the child's development. It makes up the lack of space, at home, by providing opportunities for play in fresh air and a variety of indoor and outdoor play material. Thus the modern nursery school does not substitute the home, but supplements it to aid the natural growth of the child.

The study brings out an important conclusion, namely the that pre-primary schools in Bombay city and suburbs are not adapted to the Child's needs. Majority of them are not based on known facts of child psychology.

The scope of the present study being limited it was not possible to explore all the pre-primary schools in this area. A further investigation could be made of those other schools not included here. It could be made on some specific factors such as the length of time the child is required to stay at one

activity such as embroidery, pouring water in a bottle etc. The study would reveal whether the schools system takes into account the short attention span of the child. A study could also be made of the matched groups of children in the different types of pre-primary schools.

JUNE 1950 ISSUE—A SPECIAL NUMBER

As our readers may be aware, the third session of the Indian Conference of Social Work, held at Delhi, from 26th to 31st December 1949, was an outstanding event in the history of social work in India.

Papers bearing on various fields of social work submitted to the Conference by competent persons and the lively discussions held on these by delegates from different parts of India and abroad, in the light of their own experiences in their respective spheres of activity, will, we feel sure, be of special interest to our readers.

With a view to giving wider publicity to the good work done by the Conference, we have, in collaboration with the authorities of the Conference, decided to use the next issue of the "Indian Journal of Social Work" as a "Conference Number."

The Special Number will contain, among other things, papers read by representatives of participating countries in the symposium on "Social Work Abroad", memoranda discussed in the sectional meetings, important speeches delivered by various participants and a brief account of the proceedings of the Conference.

NEWS AND NOTES

IN MEMORIAM

We are sorry to note the sad demise of Miss Madhuri Jhaveri, an old student of this Institute, on 29th January 1950. She was a victim of tuberculosis. She could attend the classes only for three terms after which she was removed to the T. B. sanatorium at Wanlesswadi.

Miss Jhaveri joined the Institute after taking her M. A. degree with Ancient Indian Culture, from the Bombay University, in 1946. Social Work attracted her attention very early in life and it was her ambition to work for the uplift of her suffering brethren. She joined the Institute to equip herself with scientific methods to approach this problem.

The way in which she fought with the disease for 2½ years while in the sanatorium was a source of inspiration and courage to other patients there. She had a yearning to live not for the sake of living but for the cause that was dear to her—serving the people in the best manner possible. During the period of her sickness her only desire to live was to work in the service of the T. B. patients. But Fate decided otherwise. Death came to her suddenly soon after an operation. We offer our sincere condolences to her parents and other relatives grieved by her death.

NINTH CONVOCATION

EXTRACTS FROM WELCOME SPEECH BY MR. NAVAL H. TATA

Mr. Naval H. Tata Chairman of the Governing Board of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences welcomed H. E. Raja Maharaj Singh, Governor of Bombay, the speaker, on the occasion of the ninth convocation of the Institute held on third December 1949. Mr. Tata paid tributes to his scholarship, sportmanship and great capacity for social service.

He then referred to the irreparable loss sustained by the Institute in the deaths of Sir Sorab Saklatwala and Sir Ardeshir Dalal who were associated with its work since its inception and said that those who were associated with the work of the Institute though grieved, were inspired by the noble traditions left behind by the departed souls.

Then he narrated briefly the character, work and achievements of the Institute. It is an All-India institution giving graduates professional education for social work as a career in various specialised fields. Its students, drawn from all communities, provinces, universities and different cross-sections of society in India and Ceylon, give it a cosmopolitan character. Started on a modest venture, thirteen years ago, it has established itself on a sound footing and has earned a reputation both at home and abroad, and has provided the country with a large number of trained social workers in various spheres.

Mr. Tata referred to the plans of expansion undertaken by the Institute to meet the

growing demands of the country. Changes had been introduced in the study course. In the beginning it was a general course for all students. Later the need for specialisation was felt and courses like Industrial Relations and Personnel Management, Family and Child Welfare, Medical and Psychiatric Social Work were introduced. He expressed appreciation of the financial help given by the Bombay Government, through the personal interest taken by Prime Minister Mr. Kher, and the Minister for Health Dr. Gilder, in the programme of expansion.

He indicated that plans were complete for constructing a new building at Worli to accommodate the various specialised departments and provide hostel for students. The Central Government and the State Governments of Bombay, Hyderabad and Mysore had come to the aid of the Institute in this connection by sanctioning grants. Mr. Tata expressed the hope that despite the economic gloom the Institute would grow from strength to strength and help to contribute, in a large measure, to the establishment of lasting peace based on prosperity and social justice.

NINTH CONVOCATION

EXTRACTS FROM SPEECH BY H. E. RAJA MAHARAJ SINGH

H. E. Raja Sir Maharaj Singh delivering the ninth convocation address praised, at the outset, the work of the Institute in the cause of social welfare. He touched on the varied and interesting syllabus, the training imparted and the subjects taught which covered diverse fields. He was glad to observe that the training had been recognised by the Government and Local Bodies and that the graduates of the Institute had been absorbed in many responsible positions.

There is much to be said, His Excellency added, for the study of social welfare on a scientific basis, and he hoped that those who left the portals of the Institute would prove themselves worthy of the training they received at the Institute. He joined with others in the deep regret expressed at the deaths of Sir Sorab Saklatwala and Sir Ardeshir Dalal. He praised the charitable disposition, generosity and public spirit of the House of Tatas, who

were responsible for establishing the Institute.

Dealing with the question of finance he was glad to note that it was getting help from the Central and State governments. He felt that the Institute was justified in approaching other State Governments for financial support, considering the fact that it was an All-India Institution.

He evinced special interest in the experiment in affording educational facilities to children who are incapacitated in hospitals owing to illness. The Child Guidance Clinic, he thought, was also a very useful section. The Anthropological and Tribal Welfare sections, which the Institute proposed to start from next year, should be of special interest to the governments of Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Orissa and Central Provinces, where there was a large tribal population. He was pleased to see the increasing number of lady students in the sphere of social activity.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED*

As teachers you have undoubtedly come across pupils who fail repeatedly in school. As you well know, school failure is due to many factors. It may be due to some

* Broadcast by Dr. Mrs. Kamala Bhoota, from the All India Radio, Bombay.
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physical defect such as poor eye sight. It may be due to the fact that the child is not happy in his personal life! Or it may be due to low intelligence, which limits the child's capacity to learn. Low intelligence is *one* of the reasons for school failure. It is usually referred to as mental defect, mental retardation or mental backwardness. Whether the school failure is due to mental retardation or not can be determined by giving the pupil a psychological test. Incidentally, such testing service is available at the Tata Child Guidance Clinic, which is located at the Jerbai Wadia Children's Hospital, Parel, Bombay.

It may be noted that all mentally defective children are not equal in the amount of intelligence they possess. Some have such low intelligence that they have to be looked after even at the age of fifteen or sixteen. Such children are usually segregated in institutions. These low grade defectives as they are called, never reach school. It is only the high grade defectives that are often found in schools, failing repeatedly. They fail because abstract learning, which forms the basis of an ordinary school curriculum, is much too difficult for them. But with special instruction, they are perfectly capable of learning skills and knowledge essential for good citizenship.

The question which arises is 'Why bother educating these children at all?' The answer is contained in the words of George L. Wallace, the American educationist. He said, "If society does not keep mentally deficient children busy in a constructive way during the whole of their school lives, they, in a destructive way, will keep society busy during their adult lives". It is estimated that at least 5 per cent of the school age children belongs to the category of the high grade mentally defective, who are educable. Obviously, the education and

training of such a vast number can not be overlooked. If these children are compelled to remain in an ordinary school, where they are required to compete with children of average or superior intelligence, they are almost sure to be delinquents or suffer a mental breakdown. That's why they should be placed in a separate class or a school where the programme of instruction is suited to their level of intelligence and their characteristics.

What are those characteristics? In the first place, the backward child is deficient in attention, which can be improved by making the school programme interesting. Likewise, he is weak in memory, reasoning, and abstract thinking. This means that he will have to be taught through concrete activity. 'Learning by doing' should be the guiding principle in teaching him. Each little activity will have to be repeated many times before he will be able to grasp it. Perhaps, the most significant fact about the backward child is that, 'he is thing-minded, not thought-minded'. He is more successful in handicrafts and manual skills than in tasks involving intellectual ability. Similarly, he can also be taught to appreciate and interpret music and pictorial art.

Physically and in health the backward children tend to be somewhat below those of average and superior intelligence. Physical defects are more frequent among them than among normal children. Therefore, the school should pay close attention to the health of these pupils. Socially, the retarded child needs help in dealing with people and getting along with them. Though he wants to participate in social activities with others of his own age, his limited mental capacity proves a handicap. His mental level may be similar to that of younger pupils; but he dislikes associating with them because of his greater

physical maturity and experience with people. However, in a special school or a class he would have the opportunity he needs of associating with those of his own age and ability. Emotionally, the backward children tend to be somewhat mal-adjusted than the children of average or superior ability. They are apt to show more frequently, the symptoms of emotional disturbance, such as, anxiety, excitability, shyness, laziness, rebelliousness, truancy, as well as delinquency. Therefore, a friendly atmosphere in school, where emotional tension is minimised, is very essential. The school should use psychiatric guidance in dealing with the children's emotional difficulties.

It is evident from this brief description that the mentally defective child is retarded in almost all the phases of mental life. He cannot be a creative thinker or a leader. He can only be a follower. He can carry out the task of every day life, and enjoy life at his own level of accomplishment. And, if he is well-adjusted, self-respecting and self-supporting, he is contributing his share to social progress.

So far we have considered the characteristics and educational needs of the mentally handicapped. What are the implications of these findings for the teacher of these children? The teacher has a vital role in their scholastic life. It is, therefore, important that she be a well-adjusted, cheerful person, with a genuine interest in these children. A person who regards them with distaste or pity should never undertake to teach them.

The first task of the teacher is to let the pupil feel that she is his friend and not his taskmaster or a critic. She should find out what he can do and like to do, and try to capitalise his interests and abilities. She should also know something

of his family life, his feelings and thoughts, so as to be able to understand him and deal with him successfully.

Whether the pupil is normal or sub-normal, he needs the same type of basic educational activities. Modern education does not limit itself to book learning. Rather, its aim is to create a desirable citizen who is physically fit, socially and morally acceptable, and capable of earning his livelihood.

How may we translate these educational objectives into the school programme suitable for the retarded child? The school programme for such children can best be taught of as consisting of a series of life activities in which they are most likely to participate in later life. These activities can be grouped under the following categories, namely, Health, Tool Subjects, Community Life, Family Life, Leisure and Vocation.

In the first place, the pupils should be taught good health habits, such as keeping themselves washed and tidy. Being able to keep themselves well-groomed will enhance their self-respect and give them a sense of power. In addition to teaching principles of health and health habits, the teacher should introduce games and drills, which improve posture and muscle co-ordination.

Secondly, the retarded child should have a practical knowledge of the tool subjects, such as Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. Instruction in these subjects should be concrete, stressing their specific application to even the most simple situations. The pupils should be taught to read signs or directions, and to follow them. He must learn how to locate information in papers, magazines, or bulletins. He must learn how to read letters and how to read stories for enjoyment. Similarly, he should learn

the use of numbers in practical life situations. Finding a certain page in a book, counting change at the grain store, finding his gain in weight, estimating the cost of his clothes, are some of the practical applications of arithmetic he should learn.

In connection with spelling and writing, the pupil can be taught to make a shopping list, to fill out a form, write letters, and keep a diary.

The third important group of life activities the retarded child should learn are those related to community life. Significant among these are habits of self-reliance, honesty, fair-play and co-operation. These modes of behaviour which are so essential for a happy social life could be taught by encouraging pupils to work together, help one another, as well as by introducing group games where team spirit is fostered. Furthermore, the pupil should be helped to understand how people live together in the city or the village. He can learn that proper living means that the laws have to be made and carried out. He should be helped to realize how streets and public places are kept clean, and the part that he must play in public sanitation.

The fourth group of life activities for the backward child is that concerning family life. The pupil is capable of learning some of the following domestic skills: washing clothes and dishes, ironing clothes, sewing, cooking, making a budget, looking after home sanitation, or making simple repairs.

Next, he needs to know how to fill his leisure hours with satisfying experiences of work, play and social contacts. An individual happily engaged is saved from

delinquency. He should, therefore, be taught recreational activities, such as, singing, or listening to good music, swimming, or hobbies like gardening or making simple handicrafts.

A very important task for the school is to provide vocational training. It should guide the backward child from the simplest type of handwork, such as stringing beads, building blocks, or cutting paper, to higher levels of manual work, which will earn him a living. As a rule, these children go into semi-skilled or unskilled labour. They have been found to be successful in occupations such as: brush-making, net-making, caning chairs, shoe repairing, farm work, labourer's work, mixing cement, domestic servant's work, laundry work, weaving rugs and mats, basketry, simple carpentry, crocheting and knitting. These men and women can be trained for a number of factory jobs involving routine, repetitious activity. Besides, there are a number of village activities, such as, growing food, or raising cattle, and a series of cottage industries which offer excellent vocational possibilities for the mentally backward. The village, with its simple life, offers them better possibilities for a satisfactory adjustment than the city.

In a country like India, where handicrafts and manual labour predominate, rehabilitation of the mentally retarded is not a very difficult problem. What we need are well-trained teachers and special schools for these children. Also, provision will have to be made for supervising the pupils even after they leave school and take their place in society. For these individuals are in need of supervision almost all their lives.

MUSIC—A VALUABLE AID IN U. S. HOSPITAL PROGRAMMES

Music is assuming an increasingly important role in the care and treatment of hospital patients in the United States. This is noted by the National Music Council, an association of American musical organizations. Long used for recreational and entertainment purposes, music is finding new value in corrective physical therapy and as an adjunct to surgical and psychiatric treatment in hospitals.

Much research has been conducted, particularly since the war, to integrate music into hospital programmes. Great care has been exercised to obtain the proper balance in the "mixture of music and medicine", to achieve the most beneficial results.

While music is generally used in all types of hospitals in the United States, "perhaps its most widespread and comprehensive use is found in neuro-psychiatric hospitals....". "Today, asylums have given way to hospitals for the mentally ill; guards and watchmen have yielded to doctors, nurses, aides, and therapists. The co-ordinated use of music in hospitals is now a part of this progress."

The part that music plays in the treatment of mental ills is seen in its use in connection with insulin shock treatments. Much advanced work in this field has been performed in hospitals for war veterans in the United States. Results of careful studies have shown that, by following proper procedure and using specific types of music, the patient's response to shock treat-

ment is more effective and his recovery from shock is speeded.

The way in which music is used in insulin shock treatment is illustrated by the programme at the Veterans Administration Hospital at Richmond, in the state of Virginia. After the patient has received insulin intravenously, music for sedation—characterized by being slow in tempo, soft in dynamics, and without sudden accents—is played so that the patient may relax. Selections include works of Sibelius, Debussy, Tchaikowsky, Wagner, Stravinski, Rachmaninoff, Grieg, and Hanson, as well as Negro spirituals.

This music is continued until the patient begins to go into the elated or excited phase of the treatment. At this time, music that is loud, fast, and accented is played. Selections for this phase include jazz orchestra recordings by Benny Goodman, Stan Kenton, Count Basie, and Duke Ellington.

In the next phase—recovery from coma—glucose is administered intravenously or, in milder cases, fruit juice is given orally. At this time, music that is soothing, soft, and of an even level is played as the patient is brought back to consciousness. Types of music for this phase include record albums by Andre Kostolanetz and Morton Gould.

Although much research remains to be done in the study of specific uses of music in therapy, musical activities already have shown themselves to be valuable aids in hospital programmes.

HOUSING AND LIVING ARRANGEMENTS IN U. S.

Housing costs of wage-earners are second only to food in the family budget—about one-fourth of the total, with a larger proportion among families with smallest incomes. The post-war shortage of housing has resulted in many departures from the ordinary single-family household.

There were about 39,138,000 households in the United States in April, 1947, with an average of 3.64 occupants, including about three related persons per household. Single-person households numbered 3,714,000, and households with two, three or four persons totalled nearly 27,000,000.

About 83 per cent of all households were in non-farm areas in April, 1947. Many wage-earners, and workers with similar incomes, own their homes, but these groups more commonly rent their homes. This account of non-farm housing therefore deals mainly with tenant-occupied dwelling units.

There are few features of living conditions in the United States that are subjected to more lively criticism than housing facilities. Many causes have contributed to the existence of substandard dwelling units, including many in need of major repairs. One of these, emphasized by labour unions, has been the difficulty of working out a satisfactory housing policy for public construction and public aid in the low-cost housing field. Another is the rapid advance in housing costs. Still another has been the rapid growth of cities and shifts in population. During and after the Second World War, these changes were especially noteworthy, and their impact has been most serious on young persons setting up family life and on workers who have changed their places of residence. Improvement of housing facilities has been retarded by the nece-

ssary diversion of manpower and materials to meet wartime needs and by the competition of other demands in the post-war period.

Progress is solving housing problems has been made, however, despite the considerable difficulties encountered. The extent of progress and the nature of our housing facilities are indicated broadly by surveys of housing made by the Bureau of the Census in April, 1940, and April, 1947. These surveys relate to the characteristics of ordinary dwelling units, which in April, 1947, numbered about 41,625,000. A dwelling unit, as defined in the surveys, is a house or group of rooms or a single room occupied or intended for occupancy as separate living quarters. A single room is considered a dwelling unit only if it has separate cooking facilities, or if it has a separate entrance and a private bath, or if it has a separate entrance and is rented unfurnished. The number of single rooms counted as dwelling units in April, 1947, was only 973,000 or 2.3 per cent of the total.

The number of all dwelling units occupied by their owners rose from 44 to 55 per cent during the seven-year period ended in April, 1947; the number of urban owner-occupied units rose from 38 to 48 per cent. Many wage-earners own their own homes, but the majority are tenants.

The housing surveys of 1940 and 1947 reveal improvements despite wartime and post-war hindrances. For example, the number of urban dwelling units with private baths and flush toilets rose from 77 to 84 per cent of the total; and the dwelling units with an average of not more than 1.5 persons per room rose from 94 to 96 per cent of the total.

There is, nevertheless, a serious housing problem in the United States. Not enough homes have been built since the war to meet current needs; and the cost of new homes of the quality demanded by American tastes tends to exceed what families with average incomes can pay.

Although many wage-earners own their homes, the status of workers in respect to housing is indicated chiefly by the characteristics of tenant-occupied dwellings. The more important characteristics of tenant-occupied dwelling units in urban centres of 2,500 population or more, in April, 1947, are shown by the following tabulation:

TENANT-OCCUPIED URBAN DWELLING UNITS	
Units in 1947:	Percentage
With running water	.. 94.6
With private bath and private flush toilet	.. 79.2
With central heating plant for heating all rooms:	
In the United States	.. 59.4
In the Northeastern States	.. 83.4
In the North Central States	.. 75.1
With electric lighting	.. 97.5
With not more than 1.5 persons per room	.. 93.5

Although substandard housing exists, especially in slum areas of large cities, most of the tenant-occupied urban dwellings have electric lights, running water, private baths and flush toilets, and, in colder sections of the country, central heating plants for heating all rooms; and few dwelling units average more than 1.5 persons per room. Homes with these characteristics have increased most rapidly in suburban areas in easy reach of cities and centres of industrial employment. Wage-earner families commonly have automobiles; and private automobiles combined with the rapid growth of public transportation facilities, especially bus service, have enabled workers to take advantage of housing facilities at considerable distances

from factories and business centres. The spreading out of residential areas has been further promoted by the extension of various public utilities such as electric light, gas, telephone, water and sewage disposal systems; by the establishment of local trading and community centres; and by the general adoption of systems for suburban delivery of milk, bread and newspapers, as well as general merchandise. These developments have been accompanied by considerable progress in the clearing away of slums in the congested areas of the cities.

Do the earnings of wage-earners and similar groups enable them to take advantage of housing facilities such as those described above? The wages of factory workers are broadly typical of the earnings of these groups. The average factory worker's wage in April, 1947, when the last housing survey was made, was about \$203.50 for the month. The median monthly rental of urban and rural non-farm dwelling units at that time was \$29.33 per month, or 14.4 per cent of the average factory worker's wage. The housing costs have generally been greater for those families who in recent years have been forced to purchase homes because of inability to find suitable rental dwellings.

The rental cost may also be stated in terms of time worked. In April, 1947, the average factory wage-earner paid a month's rental for a house with average facilities by working eight hours per day for three days.

These estimates are based on the wage of the average individual factory worker. Heads of families usually earn somewhat more than the average wage because of greater experience, seniority and skill. If more than one member of the family is at work, or if the family has income additional to wages, the family earnings are correspondingly higher, making possible the

obtaining of relatively better housing facilities.

In addition to the rental charge to a tenant or the cost of an owner-occupied house, there are the expenses connected with household services and equipment.

Tenants pay a monthly charge, which may or may not include costs of fuel, water, light and other utilities. Garbage and sewage disposal is usually provided by the community at no direct cost to the householder. Wage-earner families, as a rule, hire no regular domestic workers. The preparation of meals has been greatly simplified by bakeries, dairies, canneries and various other commercial food-processing establishments and by home refrigerators and deep-freezing units. A considerable amount of sewing and most mending of apparel is done at home. Laundry work, now to a large extent mechanized, is usually done at home among wage-earner families. Modern apartment houses now usually provide laundry equipment in the basement for joint use by tenants.

The performance of various other household services by members of the household without direct monetary income greatly increases the real income of ordinary householders.

Even low-cost homes are usually equipped with conveniences which were viewed a few years ago as luxuries. As a rule, these

include telephones; central heating units using coal, fuel oil or gas; a gas or electric kitchen stove, although coal and even wood-burning stoves may still be found; and gas or electric refrigerators, or ice boxes in some areas. Heating units, and frequently laundries, stoves and refrigerators, are integral parts of dwelling units and are thus included in the rental charge, although the fuel or energy used is commonly an additional expense. Other items of equipment must ordinarily be supplied by the tenant. These include, as a rule, washing machines, electric irons, toasters, vacuum cleaners, telephones and radios; and most workers have them.

Household sewing machines are also to be found in the homes of many workers; their use has recently increased as a means of reducing clothing costs.

Many of these items of equipment, and also furniture, are often bought on the installment plan and used for many years.

Furniture and furnishings are of many types, varying with personal tastes as well as ability to pay. Recently, however, there has been a tendency toward simpler furniture and furnishings which require less room and are easier to keep clean. Few homes, for example, now have heavy draperies or tacked-down carpets; and furniture is less massive. Paper towels, napkins and even paper dishes for some purposes and occasions are widely used.

I. F. T. U. News DECEMBER 1949.

N. F. KAIKOBAD JOINS THE FACULTY OF THE T. I. S. S.

We are happy to note that Mr. N. F. Kaikobad has joined the Tata Institute of Social Sciences from first January 1950 as a member of the Faculty. He had been working, since 1949 as a part time lecturer in social group work at this Institute.

After graduating from the Bombay University, Mr. Kaikobad joined this Institute as a student in 1942. He took his diploma in 1944 and worked as Superintendent of Social Welfare Work, Zorastrian Welfare Association, Bombay. In 1946 he joined the University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A.,

for higher training in Social Group Work in which he obtained his M. S. W. degree after a study of two years.

We are glad to welcome him in our midst and wish him a successful career at this Institute.

CAMP AT NASIK

Camping is considered as one of the best ways to teach boys and girls principles of good citizenship and comradeship. It is an important part of the programme of all youth movements. The Boy Scout Movement was, in a way, the pioneer in this direction. It has been suggested that, in India, every school child should have experience of camp life for thirty days, during his academic career. Camping, to be of any use to the participants, should have certain standards.

A group of students of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, working at the St. George Hospital Social Service Centre, organised, during the Christmas holidays 1949, a camp for the boys of the centre, at Nasik, for five days under the guidance of their field work guide, Miss. Taraporewalla, as part of the fulfillment of their group work training experience. These boys were of the ages of 11-15 and belonged to the

families of the lower income group workers of the hospital.

It was the first camping experience both for the students and the boys. Under the supervision of the students the boys were divided into small groups to look after various works in the camp like food preparation, sanitation and cleanliness. All the participants showed a keen interest in the various activities of the camp life like hiking, camp fire etc. and enjoyed the life fully.

The camp gave the students an opportunity to use their initiative and realise the responsibilities one should know when organising a camp for children. Besides they got a chance to study the behaviour of the children staying away from their home environments in a different setting of group life in a camp. This experience strengthens the conviction that camping experience under trained leadership is essential for all children.

TRADE UNIONISM IN POLAND

The political, material and cultural conditions of the working masses, in Poland, are steadily and systematically improving despite the terrible devastation caused by the Nazi invasion. Today, the working people, in the country, are no longer threatened by unemployment or crises spelling ruin to Poland's overall economy.

The 1803 delegates, who attended the second post-war convention of Polish Trade Unions, held on June 1, 1949, were elected by Poland's textile mills, foundries, mines and universities and they represented the

country's 31 unions and 3,600,000 organised workers.

The Trade Union Movement is the largest non-party mass organisation of the working classes, in Poland, representing the every day interests of the worker and mobilising them for the realisation of Socialism in the country. Thus, today, trade unions speak with a double authority as guardians of the workers' welfare and as responsible partners of the job of building a society which serves the people. The working people mostly are made up of manual and

white-collared workers without party affiliation.

The Labour Law recently sponsored by the government recognises the trade union organisation as the unquestioned representative of the working class and as co-manager of the country's life, prepared to protect and fight for the welfare of the working class. The trade unions are declared to be entitled to a voice in the fields of production, economic planning, industrial safety, housing, vocational education and social welfare.

Polish trade unions will continue to function as non-party organisation of workers. This, however, should not be construed to mean that trade unions in Poland are non-political. They will continue to engage in political actions the purpose of which is the building up of a socialist system without the exploitation of man by man.

All unions in Poland are now organised on an industrial basis. Thus members employed in one establishment belong to the same union and each union unites workers employed in the same or related industries. Today's total trade union membership of 3,566,000 represents almost a four-fold increase over pre-war years. Only 17 per cent of the nation's total working force is still unorganised with most of the unorganised employed in private enterprise, on farms or on church estates.

The organised workers belong to 31 national unions as against 36, a year ago. On April 15, 1949, six unions—theatrical workers, film workers, musicians, radio workers and employees of Jewish theatres merged into one single body known as the Union of Cultural and Art Workers.

There are about one million organised women in Poland. They predominate in the clothing industry where they constitute 72 per cent of all workers, in health services (60 per cent), teaching (59.8 per cent) and in the textile industry (58.8 per cent). The Youth Sections safeguard the rights of workers below 21 years of age. Poland has ratified more conventions relating to safety and working conditions, than any other member of the I.L.O.

Because they are the largest Polish mass organisations it is generally recognised in Poland that the trade unions are best adapted to carry out the programmes for the eradication of illiteracy. The 5000 libraries form 26 per cent of all libraries in Poland. Most of them are located in trade union social and recreation halls, "*swietlice*", of which there are 7000 spread throughout the country. There are today 20 trade union papers in Poland. The central trade union council also publishes a monthly magazine, "*Labour Economic Review*", devoted to labour-economic thought and a monthly bulletin in English, Russian and French for foreign distribution.

Extracts from *Poland's Trade Unions* Oct 1949

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

The third session of the Indian Conference of Social Work held, at Delhi, from 26th to 31st December, 1949, was a unique one in many respects. A large and distinguished gathering of about 300 delegates and observers from all over India and abroad attended it. It was the first time when

about 20 foreign delegates and fraternal observers, representing Asia as well as European countries and international bodies, attended the Session.

The need for co-ordination, in different fields of social work, was keenly felt and the President, Dr. Jivraj Mehta, Minister

for Public Works, Government of Bombay, in the course of his speech made a strong plea for the immediate establishment of a Ministry of Public Welfare. He said: "It is a fashion these days to expect the government alone to shoulder the burden of reconstruction and rehabilitation. The slogan of the "Welfare State" has added emphasis to this exaggerated concept of State responsibility. It must be stated that however sincere the government at the centre and in the Provinces may be, however inclined they may be to put all the available resources at the disposal of the social worker, the vast problems that confront us cannot be dealt with effectively unless proper and powerful agencies are created. What is called for is co-ordination of effort between the public and private agencies and the municipal and provincial government agencies. A proper definition of distribution of the municipal, provincial and central government activities, so far as social services are concerned, are also necessary. Governments alone can not tackle such gigantic problems unaided by the people. Powerful agencies, both public and private, must be created to bear the brunt of social welfare."

The Session was divided into four sections—"State and Social Services", "Family, Child and Youth Welfare", "Co-ordination of Social Work—its possibilities and difficulties" and "Social Work in Industry", and discussed specially prepared memoranda. The proceedings of the session came to a close with the Plenary Session, held on Saturday the 31st December, when sectional chairmen submitted their reports containing the recommendations of their respective sections. The reports were discussed and accepted.

The Social Research Committee appointed by the Madras Session of the Conference met under the Chairmanship of Dr. Jivraj

Mehta and discussed the possibilities of development of research on social problems on scientific lines in a co-ordinated manner with the help of the existing institutions and agencies interested in the promotion of social research.

A special feature of this session was the unique exhibition on "Social Work Abroad". It was arranged with the co-operation of foreign embassies in India and portrayed, pictorially, various aspects of the growth and development of social work in countries more advanced in the field of social welfare. It was, perhaps, the first time that such an exhibition was held in India. The countries and the international agencies, which participated in this great programme of immense educational appeal to social workers, included U.K., U.S.A., Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, United Nations, UNESCO, UNICEF, the Red Cross and Y.M.C.A. The fields of social work covered by the exhibition were Child Welfare, Welfare in Industry, Relief and Rehabilitation, Rural Social Work and Training in Social Work.

Another unique contribution of the conference was the instructive and illuminating symposium on "Social Work Abroad" specially planned in co-operation with foreign embassies. Dr. J. M. Kamarappa presided over the symposium and papers dealing with the progress of social services in U. K., U.S.A., Australia, Czechoslovakia, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland were read by the representatives of these countries. Dr. J. F. Bulsara, Far Eastern Representative of the Division of Social Activities of the United Nations, at Bangkok, reviewed the advisory social services of the United Nations, in the Far East, and urged on the more developed countries of the region to

offer facilities in terms of resources for the welfare of the people of the region through co-operative and mutual helpfulness. He warned social workers in India that though

there was much to learn from the experiences of the west, they must adapt their social welfare and ameliorative techniques to their conditions and resources.

WELFARE NEWS DIGEST

We are glad to receive a copy of the first issue of "Welfare News Digest", a fortnightly news bulletin published by the Indian Conference of Social Work, Delhi Province, in co-operation with the Delhi School of Social Work.

The aim of this publication is to give extracts from news items, relating to social welfare, appearing in various dailies, thus focussing the attention of the public on the many welfare needs of the people; and the constructive efforts made in different parts of the country to meet the demand. Special preference is given to items of local interest; and the progress reports and news items from member agencies of the Conference also find a place. The Digest is

issued on the first and fifteenth of every month, and is available to readers at Rs. -/3/- a copy.

The first issue contains extracts from news items which appeared in various dailies. While welcoming this contemporary we would like to make one suggestion. We feel that importance should be given to news items of various kinds of social work carried on by the Indian Conference of Social Work, in general, and the Delhi branch, in particular. The news items, culled out from various periodicals, should be given only a secondary place. We are sure that the Digest will grow to meet the needs of the social workers for a medium of authentic news from all part of this wide sub-continent. We wish it all success.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN ISRAEL*

The history of the re-establishment of the State of Israel is a story of blood and fire. The new State understood the importance of social work and introduced many reforms in the field. When Palestine was a British Mandated territory the Jewish community there, organised its own social service agencies. During the early period of this regime the Jews of Palestine of the Yishu, as they were called, organised themselves on a sound basis as they realised that they were the vanguard of the great nation that was to return and renew its life in the beloved homeland.

They elected a supreme council to direct their affairs and its first task was to set up departments of Education, Health and Social Work. Moreover they sought and obtained the expert assistance of Jews from abroad, especially those in the U.S.A., to advise them in the solution of their manifold problems. The intention was to make social services a function of the State. It was duly ordered that all local authorities should perform the necessary social functions and all kinds of social services on the spot. These functions were as obligatory as the many other public services like the supply

* Based on Government of Israel representative to the third Indian conference of social work, Mr. Chaim Yaphet's talk at a press conference held at New Delhi.

of water, light etc. The social service thus received an important place in the public life of the state. Many new institutions for social service were established, organisations and services were created in towns and different parts of the country, and won universal appreciation. Special mention must be made of the social establishment and funds for mutual assistance and mutual insurance created by the Jewish General Federation of Labour ("Histadruth"). Conferences and public gatherings were arranged for popularising the concept of social service. Periodicals were also published for the same purpose.

A Ministry of Social Affairs was set up with two main divisions namely:

1. General
2. Children

1. *The General*.—This Division consisted of departments for the following purposes.

- (a) To organise, supervise and guide all the official social service bureaus in towns and villages;
- (b) to manage the affairs of the new immigrants and help their rehabilitation;
- (c) to care for refugees and all who suffered from the last war;
- (d) to look after the welfare of the minorities—Christians and Arabs;
- (e) to look after the aged, invalids and cripples, and prisoners and assist their families; and
- (f) to supervise the public and private charitable institutions and co-ordinate their fund-raising campaigns.

The minorities—the Christians and the Arabs, enjoy all the privileges like the Jewish citizens. There is a school to train their social workers. The Government had

to face another problem—that of refugees, who formed, approximately, 20 per cent of the entire population. In the short space of one year this gigantic problem was fully solved with the co-operation of all government departments.

The Agricultural Ministry settled many of them on the land, assisting them with hundreds of trained workers; the Ministry of Social Services looked after their welfare and in each village at least one highly trained social worker organised their social services. Special mention must be made of the magnificent manner in which individual women, in towns and villages, in a voluntary capacity, rallied round to solve this problem. The Labour Ministry employed refugees in public works. The Health Ministry established clinics in all the villages. The Education Ministry organised schools and adult education classes for their benefit and also organised variety entertainments, concerts, film shows etc.

The toughest problem in Israel is undoubtedly the absorption of the last remnants of the displaced persons from camps in Europe who fled to Israel in the worst possible conditions. The waves of immigrants, rescued from annihilation, from many different countries, are bringing with them different standards of life, different customs and ways of living with different requirements.

2. *Children*.—This Division dealt with the children's problems and contained departments to carry out the following functions:

- (a) To carry out the luncheon scheme in the schools;
- (b) to provide milk for the poor children in the schools;
- (c) to look to the hygiene and social preventive work in the schools;

- (d) arrange and supervise summer camps during holidays;
- (e) to look after the delinquent children;
- (f) to build institutions for children and to supervise the existing institutions;
- (g) to accommodate them in the institutions or in private families especially in the villages;
- (h) to start vocational guidance schools; and
- (i) to set up observation stations.

There are also special departments for research, scientific and statistical, which publish their own periodical magazines. There is a special Institute to train social workers (established in 1933) with a well-equipped library. Annual conferences of rural and district, trained and voluntary social workers are held.

The Municipal social service agencies are aided by the government in the following ways:—

A well-to-do municipality receives financial support to the extent of 30 per cent of its total budget for social services. Others receive 50, 70, 90 per cent respectively. War refugee and immigrant camps receive full government support.

In view of the high rate of taxation the people can not pay much for private social service agencies. The responsibility of social service, therefore, rests with the government.

Health Work.—The Yishur under the stimulus of its own inspired effort organised, many years ago, hospitals and clinics. Further, the labour organisation created a sick fund for the benefit of all the people and more than a third of the total number of the Jews in Palestine subscribed for it. This fund not only established hospitals and clinics in the remotest village in the land

but also initiated the opening of tuberculosis hospitals, homes for the insane and for invalids. It also took in hand the setting up of convalescent and recreation homes for the workers in the hills and near the seaside. In the villages too the inhabitants secured the benefits of sick fund.

The Jews have completely liquidated the menace of malaria. This dreadful disease not only took a heavy toll of lives but it also rendered many parts of the land useless. The successful and efficient manner in which they dealt with the problem won international recognition and appreciation.

Education services.—The Jewish children went to the schools opened by the Mandatory government which, however, was not giving the right type of education suited to the needs of the country and in accordance with the national aspiration. Therefore, Jews were obliged to open their own schools. They opened professional schools, polytechnique institutions and technical schools in Haifa and also a Hebrew university. Free and compulsory primary education was introduced and thus illiteracy was completely wiped out. In addition to free compulsory primary education, the following amenities have been provided to children upto 14 years.

- (a) Free lunch and milk at schools.
- (b) Free medical attention and dental care.
- (c) Preventive work.
- (d) Play grounds.
- (e) Summer camps.
- (f) Clothes, books etc. for the poor children.
- (g) Institutions for the blind, deaf, dumb and disabled under trained instructors.

Settlement.—Many agricultural settlements were organised with the help of co-operative banks which gave loans at a low rate of interest. People were asked to take up farming instead of seeking other jobs. In the early period of its establishment the Government of Israel included in its working programme the following items dealing with problems of social security.

1. Gradual and constant improvement of the standard of life, education, working conditions and health of the entire population, irrespective of nationality, community or sex.

2. Rooting out illiteracy, sickness and over population in slum areas.

3. Diversified social insurance for all inhabitants against unemployment, sickness and old age and for widows, orphans and invalids.

4. Care for increase of birth rate, grant-in-aid and special allowances for families with many children.

In order to ensure the carrying out of this programme the government appointed a committee of experts. Its plan includes perfection of the existing social insurance, its co-ordination, development and gradual enlargement into a system of National Social Insurance including:

1. Insurance against industrial accidents;
2. insurance against illness;
3. maternity insurance;
4. invalids insurance;
5. old age, widows and orphans pensions;
6. unemployment insurance.

HOW INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY PAYS IN A TEXTILE MILL*

AN EXPERIMENT WHICH WAS HIGHLY SUCCESSFUL.

Dr. Alfred J. Marrow M. A., Columbia, 1928; Ph.D., Psychology, New York University, 1937; who is now the President of a Textile Mill called the Harwood Mfg. Corp. at Marion, Va., U.S.A. is one of those very rare industrialists in the world to show by his personal example that psychology can be harnessed in the service of industry so as to pay large dividends in return. In his plant, psychology is paying in increase of products, of sales, in wages; and in the reduction of absenteeism, labour turnover and training time.

According to him, psychology in industry

is neither horse sense, nor the paternalistic human relations evolved in other plants by less scientific means. It is instead the application of tested laboratory principles to the problems of workers, to communications between workers and supervisors, to policy making, to leadership training.

In the Marion plant he is conducting scientific experiments in industrial psychology that may have an impact upon industrial relations as great as the Hawthorn studies by Western Electric a generation ago. Those methods and principles statistically proved at Marion can be used in every type of industry.

*Adapted from *Modern Industry*.

For example: "Group decision" methods—an essential in industrial democracy—that were successful at Marion in winning over pajama pressers involved in a wage-rate change are just as effective in selling his board of directors a new proposal or ironing out a marketing kink among his salesmen.

Says Dr. Marrow: "Since the subject matter of psychology is behaviour, it is inseparably a part of all areas which involve man's working with man. But this is also the domain of the foreman, the engineer, and the executive who are seeking to influence behaviour.

"In advertising, selling, management, engineering, there are psychological problems which occur constantly and which are being handled by people with no psychological experience. Industry wants help from psychology. Psychologists will be most effective in meeting this challenge and opportunity if they are as well trained both in industrial fundamentals and psychology."

Production workers at the Marion plant are paid on a liberal piece work rate based upon modern time studies. Standard for every job is set at 60 units an hour, which may be 120 dozen buttonholes or forty complicated fitting operations. The going wage rate is 72c an hour, in line with area scales for the industry. Workers (mostly women) over standard are paid a 100 per cent bonus. Labour costs in this low-profit margin, heavy volume industry, are 40 per cent of consumer price.

Under this condition, daily production records of every employee must be kept. These records provide quick, easily translatable data to support statistically Dr. Marrow's experiments.

Annual turn-over among learners who reached 30 units an hour was 12 percent; at 45 units it rose to 60 percent and at 55 to 96 percent; but at 60—or standard—dropped to 7 percent.

To the lay man it doesn't make sense that people are more apt to quit their jobs as they near their skill goal. To the psychologist the answer was clear. As the goal is approached the drive to reach it becomes greater; but it becomes increasingly difficult to acquire additional skill to reach it.

Fear Wins Out.—The result is a fear of failure resulting from the clash of these forces which is answered by the learner in escape (absenteeism or quitting), or by aggression (grievances through the union, compliants, etc.).

Among the remedies was a simple one: Instead of shooting blindly for the goal of 60 units from the first day on the job, learners were given a series of lesser goals, each week a little higher than the previous, lifting the new worker step by step. It sharply reduced turnover.

From the same data, Dr. Marrow's associates determined the time needed to bring a new worker up to standard production. Average for the plant was 34 weeks.

An effort was then made to speed the process of bringing new workers up to standard. With the knowledge already gained that increased pressure would only lead to frustration and quits, another solution was sought. Both foremen and trainers, at this point, had been selected chiefly on technical skill. They were efficient craftsmen. But, were they equally efficient as leaders and teachers?

A group of supervisors took a training course in leadership. Sessions included a great deal of "role playing" (explained in detail below), group discussions, and few information lectures.

After this training in leadership, production records of employees working under supervisors in the experimental, trained group were compared to those under the "control group" (those who had not been trained). The first had increased production 24 percent; the untrained group only 6 percent.

The leadership-training instruction was then given to all trainers and supervisors. Again, the production records were checked.

Learning time of the new employee has now been cut to 15 weeks!

"Role-playing" of a real problem is a new technique that Dr. Marrow uses throughout the organization from straw bosses to his top executives. It's like a stage play with actors making up their lines, and a sure-fire method of group instruction. To demonstrate, Dr. Marrow swivelled his chair toward the MI editor and challenged:

"Let's role-play! I'm Joe Smith, a presser. I missed two days last month. I missed Monday, Tuesday. Today—Wednesday—I've been ordered to report to you, my foreman. You are on the spot because of absenteeism in your department. What are you going to say?"

"Well, Joe," the editor said, "What happened Monday and Tuesday? You know we can't operate when people are absent without letting us know about it."

"Just couldn't get in," replied Dr. Marrow-Smith grumpily.

"Sick?"

"No."

"Anything wrong at home?"

"Nope. Just personal."

Editor and psychologist battled. The foreman's dilemma was a serious one: he wanted to find out why the worker was absent, caution against further absences. And he couldn't get tough and lose the worker.

Cure for soreheads.—Dr. Marrow and the editor reversed their roles. At the end of the brief match of wits the worker's problem and that of the foreman had been recognised, confidence regained, and company's policy supported.

Harwood Co. is using this technique at every level of management, and in every phase of its activities. It not only develops the *best* way of meeting any given situation, particularly among foremen tackling labour-relations problems, but it leads to a *uniform* approach.

"Joe Smith" of the demonstration game wouldn't be fired by one foreman and returned to work without any admonition by the next. He'd get identical treatment from both.

In the "role-playing" sessions, particularly among supervisors, two widely different approaches to human relations are demonstrated. In situations where workers are slipping in their efficiency, or are not progressing satisfactorily, two methods of handling the problem exist.

Part of the show.—The first is direct participation when the worker is given an opportunity to explain and criticize conditions which have contributed to his slow progress. He's encouraged to talk freely to justify himself. The foreman then shifts the interview into constructive chan-

nels and seeks the co-operation of the worker toward solving his own problems. In psychological terms it's "mental catharsis" and sound mental hygiene.

The second process, however, is the direct frontal attack by a supervisor upon the action of the worker. This method is typical of most plants, but it rarely works. It places the worker on the defensive, results in aggression responses which, as cited above, seek their outlet in absenteeism, quits, or grievances and other hostile acts.

With psychologists in the plant and accurate records available, Dr. Marrow's research has moved into the problems of worker resistance to change—and from that a demonstration of the value of "industrial democracy."

At Harwood, which makes products sensitive to frequent changes in consumer buying tastes, shifts in production methods are required.

These shifts require many adjustments in jobs, methods, and wage rates. Similar changes in jobs and methods are found in virtually every mass-production industry.

Study of learning curves and turn-over revealed that the average learning period for beginners for the simplest job is about five weeks. The *re-learning* period for an experienced worker transferred to the same job was eight weeks—until training was improved.

Light on transferred labour.—Other studies showed that turnover among one group of workers steadily employed at one job was 4½ percent a month. For another group, doing the same work, but recently transferred to it, the rate was 12 percent.

The transferred employees had their greatest turn-over at the lowest unit rating,

their lowest turn-over as they approached their former performance standard.

The psychologist translated this: Fear of failure of the transferred worker is greatest immediately after the change and before he has acquired the skill to attain standard rating at the new job. Then he feels the most insecure and is most resentful toward management.

Band against change.—Another phenomenon of human behaviour in resistance to change is the development of the "in-group" or "we" feeling, antagonistic to management. Such groups in a plant are common. The "we" feeling may be based on dislike of a supervisor—or working on the same assembly line. "In-group" feeling is normal and helpful until it becomes hostile to management or to the interests of the larger body of which the group is a part. In such cases resistance to change may be expressed in restrictions on production; Members of the group have some hope that if production never meets a standard, management may change the piece rate in their favour.

An experiment in industrial democracy was undertaken on the basis of these findings. Five groups of workers whose jobs' methods and rates were to be changed were selected. The groups were similar in size, the degree of change was the same, and the amount of in-group feeling was identical.

The control group went through the usual factory routine. The production department modified the job, a new piece rate was set. No new skills were required. Members of the group were called together, the reasons of the change explained, questions were answered.

These groups had their say.—Four experimental groups were changed by using democratic-participation methods.

Each was told that changes in the job were required by the sales department.

Agreement was reached that savings could be effected by removing some "fancy work" from the garments involved. Management suggested that the group study the job as then done, seek to eliminate unnecessary work. The group then choose two operators to be specially trained. Their work was time-studied, and a new rate set. These operators explained the new method to the rest of the group and assisted in training other operators.

Members of these groups were soon talking about "our job" and "our rate." Their suggestions at meetings popped fast.

The control group resisted the change. In 40 days, 17 percent of the group quit. Grievances were filed, although when the rate was checked it was found to be "loose."

The four groups that were made a part of management in determining the change showed fine recoveries. There were no quits in these groups, and production actually went over the prechange averages of the group.

It is on the basis of this and similar experiments that Dr. Marrow and his associates are committed to group decisions and group meetings at all ranks.

But don't get the idea that anyone is turning the company over to committees. He warns of dangers in groups decisions. He's set up some rough rules that keep control:

1. Meetings shouldn't be regular; they should be called only when there is a real need for them.

2. Membership of the group must not be on a statistical basis; the determining factor is common interest in the problem.

3. The group leader must know the result that he hopes to achieve, even though

he may not have a predetermined method in mind.

4. The leader must be prepared to channel discussion so that the group decision springs from the persons in the group and is agreed to unanimously by them.

That isn't easy. The staff has been known to spend several hours preparing for a meeting that lasted just 30 minutes. But without the preparation, the 30-min. meeting might be a week of conferences.

Aids hiring, too.—While interest is in stepping up production among workers now employed, the staff is also using advanced psychological methods in selecting better new workers. Two tests—one to determine frustration and another to determine aspiration—are used in hiring.

Of course, Dr. Marrow doesn't rely on psychology alone but it makes more effective other more usual personnel policies. He pays good wages, grants benefits that are general throughout that portion of the industry that is unionized. The plant location in the mountains of western Virginia is ideal. Officers of the union are as interested in his experiments as are the members of the learned societies with whom Dr. Marrow is associated.

All in a day's work.—And the learned societies are many. While directing research at Marion and running both sales and production of a thriving company, he finds time to lecture at management, personnel, and scientific meetings; to write articles for academic magazines, and a book, *Man's living with man*; to teach at New York's New School for Social Research; and, as chairman, direct the Research Board of the Commission on Community Interrelations.

He's proving that there's a big place in top industrial management for the professional scientist. And he is proving that there is a place in industry for psychology.

BOOK REVIEWS

Supervising People by George D. Halsey. Harper & Brothers, New York and London, 1946. (Pp. 231 \$3.00.)

"This book is intended primarily for Supervisors—foremen in shops and Mills, section heads in offices, assistant buyers and floor managers in retail stores—the men and women directly in charge of the workers and responsible for whether or not each individual's work is well done. It deals with the practical aspects of supervision—what have been the problems of many supervisors and tells how they have solved these problems." So says the author in his preface and continues, "The suggestions on how best to supervise people made in this book are by no means the product of one person's mind. Some of the ideas have come from books; but many more have come from watching and talking with successful Supervisors."

"*Supervising People*" contains fourteen chapters and each chapter deals with a separate phase of the subject of supervision and "each is reasonably independent of the others".

According to the author, "Supervision is selecting the right person for each job; arousing in each person an interest in his work and teaching him how to do it; measuring and rating performance to be sure that teaching has been fully effective; administering correction where this is found necessary and transferring to more suitable work or dismissing those for whom this proves ineffective; commanding wherever praise is merited and rewarding for good work; and finally, fitting each person harmoniously into the working group—all done fairly, patiently, and tactfully so that each person is caused to do his work skilfully, accurately, intelligently, enthusiastically, and comple-

tely." He arrives at the conclusion that since supervision is highly complex and entails heavy responsibilities, 'Supervising People' is a profession.

Halsey then points six qualities, namely, thoroughness, fairness, initiative, tact, enthusiasm, and emotional control which are together important for success. So that you may be liked by your workers in the establishment always make heroic efforts to win their confidence and that you can do alone when you snatch every honest opportunity to say and do those things which make people feel bigger, better and more important. He adds, "Never unless it is absolutely necessary for their own good or unless circumstances allow no alternative, say or do things, even in joke, which hurt peoples feelings, which make them feel smaller, meaner, less important," and continues that, "Although these little things just appear pussyfooting, yet they take you far causing your employees like you."

Halsey lays down ten commandments in one of the chapters "correcting without offending", namely, fairness to the individual, non-correction before other employees and interviewing beginning with a question. Other things on which he emphasises are, to give the person being corrected ample opportunity to talk; consider carefully all of the evidence; fit the method of correction to the individual; maintain your calmness regardless of the employee attitude; close pleasantly; restore self confidence; follow up with a second interview, if necessary and using correction not so often."

Dealing with the Supervisors Problem Cases, the author also suggests some com-

mandments to be followed to maintain harmonious relations between the management and the workmen. A knowledge of understanding human behaviour is, therefore, very essential to achieve success. In another chapter Mr. Halsey suggests the desirability of employing an employee counsellor in addition to the supervisor, whose duties should be to help the new employee to become oriented to the job, giving information and assistance and personal problems connected both with his job and outside.

"Supervising People" is indeed a very suggestive book and full of new ideas reinforced with interesting anecdotes which deserve attention from all those who are connected directly or indirectly in this profession of supervision.

Reviewer's own Note:

Considering conditions as they exist in India it is doubtful whether the employee counsellor can help much a worker except perhaps with regard to enable him to become oriented to the job.

J. B. S.

Employee Counselling by Nathaniel Cantor New York: (1945) McGraw-Hill Book Company (pp. 167. \$3).

"The purpose of this study is to make a contribution to the rapidly growing field of personnel counselling." It limits itself to the exploration of the counselling, interviewing programme in industry. The principles described therein have been illustrated by actual cases 'taken from the files of the personnel department of one of the largest airplane companies of the country.'

"Employee Counselling" is divided into three parts, one deals with the Problem, the other with the Approach to the Problem and the third with the Organization of the counsellor consultant staff and its place in the entire organization of the plant.

The author points out that there are a series of problems that cause unhappiness and dissatisfactions amongst the employees, which 'have their origin in the individual's own feelings about himself.' He wants security in his work; recognition on the part of others that he is doing his job well; the feeling that he is an important part of a group that he "belongs", and a chance to express himself in some way large or small, to do something in his own peculiar way. 'How well they are satisfied

will determine how a worker feels about himself? The more satisfied he is, the greater will be his self-esteem, the more content will he be and therefore, the more efficient is what he is doing.' The author also points out that the individual as a person and as a worker cannot be separated. But as at the present day the two are considered separate things, integration, therefore, is needed and to bring about this integration, Cantor feels that counselling employees, 'to help the employee help himself to adjust to a problem that interferes with his performing an efficient job', is very necessary. It may be noted that the employee consultant has one job only: 'to help the employee find the solution to his own emotional problem in his own way and at his own tempo.'

Talking about the qualifications needed for counsellors, Cantor is of opinion that they must have 'at least a college training with specialization in Sociology, psychology, education, or personnel administration, plus a certain number of years of experience' in the field of industrial counselling, personnel administration, vocational counselling,

social case work, social group work, or leadership in recreational activities. In short the counsellors must have an understanding of the dynamics of human behaviour and social case work principles and practice. The writer maintains that industrial counselling is a relatively new field and 'without professional development almost no one can perform the duties of an efficient interviewer'.

According to the author, if industry is to prosper, the need for personnel counsellors is immediate and the schools of

social work should recognise this immediate need and opportunity to develop industrial counsellors, just as they now prepare psychiatric social workers or child-care workers etc.

"Employee counselling" certainly gives a new approach to industrial psychology and 'is a must be read book' especially by those who are at present engaged in the field of industrial relations and personnel management.

J. B. S.

A Premier on the Prevention of deformity in Childhood by Richard Beverly Raney. National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., Chicago 3, Illinois, U.S.A. (pp. 188. \$1.00).

Sponsored by the National Society for Crippled Children, this book is a very useful and informative publication both for the general medical practitioner as well as those entrusted with the care of children. In India where so little attention has been given to the subject of deformity and crippling, a book of this nature which deals with the preventive aspect of deformity is badly needed. This book also helps in drawing our attention to the importance of prevention of minor deformities to which we in India are inclined to give very little thought. While serious crippling makes an individual a social problem minor deformities create problems for individuals and may deny them a normal and happy life. So it is the duty of the parent, teacher, Social Worker and the Medical man wherever possible to prevent deformities which can easily be prevented through necessary and proper care at the right time. The book under review has been written with this purpose in view and should be within the reach of all those who may have need for it, for reading as well as for reference.

In this book the author, at the outset, deals with 'the common affections of childhood which may cause deformity' and acquaints the reader with the various inherited abnormalities, disorders of nutrition, infections, injuries and psychological aberrations, which may give rise to different types of deformities. Later he goes on to describe the various types of deformities that are to be found in children giving the causes for these deformities and ways of preventing them. To portray graphically each crippling condition or deformity numerous illustrations have been used. The book has 88 illustrations in all.

The author has been able to convey in simple language and with the use of very few medical terms a great deal of medical information which the non-medical reader can easily understand. The Glossary of common orthopaedic terms included in the index further helps the lay reader in understanding the material presented.

I. R.

PROGRAMME OF THE SESSION

Monday, 26th December, 1949

10-30 A.M.—Meeting of the Central Executive Committee at the Y. W. C. A. School of Social Work, The Mall, Delhi.

5 P.M.—Inaugural Session. Address of Welcome by Mrs. Ramcshwari Nehru Chairman of the Reception Committee. Proposing the president for the coming year by Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Vice President. Summary of the Ag. Hon. General Secretary's Report by Mrs. Gulestan R. B. Billimoria.

Presidential Address—by the Hon'ble Dr. Jivraj Mehta, President elect.

Vote of thanks—Mr. M. S. Gore, Hon. Gen. Secretary Delhi Province Branch.

Tuesday, 27th December, 1949.

9-45 A.M.—Group Photograph.

10 A.M.—Opening Address by the Hon'ble Shri V. L. Mehta, Chairman of the Section—"State and Social Service."

10-30 A.M.—Opening Address by Mrs. Renuka Ray, Chairman of the Family, Child & Youth Welfare Section.

11 A.M.—Opening Address by Dr. Radha Kamal Mukerji, Chairman of the Section "Co-ordination of Social Work—Its Possibilities and Difficulties."

11-30 A.M.—Opening Address by Miss Dorothy Moses, Chairman of the Section—"Social Work in Industry."

12 Noon to 2-30 P.M.—Break for Lunch.

12-30 to 1-30 P.M.—Meeting of the Social Research Committee.

2-30 P.M. to 4-30 P.M. Sectional Meetings "State and Social Services" and "Social Work in Industry."

5 P.M.—Opening of the "Exhibition of Social Work in India and Abroad".

Mrs. Gulestan R. B. Billimoria's Report.

Pandit H. N. Kunzru's inaugural Address.

6 to 7-15 P.M.—Symposium on "Social Work Abroad". Opening remarks by the Chairman—"Social Services in the U. S. A."

Wednesday 28th December, 1949.

10 to 11 A.M.—Symposium: "Social services in the U.S.S.R."

11-10 to 1 P.M.—Sectional Meetings: "State and Social Services". "Social Work in Industry."

1 P.M. to 2-30 P. M.—Break for Lunch.

2-30 P. M. to 4-30 P. M.—Sectional Meetings: "Family, Child & Youth Welfare" "Coordination of Social Work—its possibilities and difficulties."

5 to 6 P.M.—Symposium "Social Services in Czechoslovakia".

6-30 P. M.—Reception and variety entertainment.

Thursday, 29th December, 1949.

10 A.M. to 11 A.M.—Symposium "Social Services in the United Kingdom."

11-10 A.M. to 1 P.M.—Sectional Meetings: "State and Social Services." "Social Work in Industry."

1 P.M. to 2-30 P.M.—Break for Lunch.

2-30 P.M. to 4-30 P.M.—Sectional Meetings. "Family, Child and youth Welfare". "Co-ordina-

tion of Social Work—its Possibilities and Difficulties."

5 P.M. to 6 P.M.—Symposium "Social Services in Australia."

6-15 P.M. to 7-15 P.M.—Symposium "Advisory Social Welfare Services of the United Nations."

Friday, 30th December, 1949

10 A.M. to 11 A.M.—Symposium "Social Services in Sweden."

11-10 A.M. to 1 P.M. Annual General Meeting. Annual Report of Ag. Hon. Secretary & Statement of Accounts, Election of the President, Election of 3 Vice-Presidents, Election of 18 Retiring Members of the Central Executive Committee, Appointment of Auditors, Considering the amendments to the constitution of the Indian Conference of Social Work, Considering the observance of the Social Welfare Day in 1950.

1 P.M. to 2 P.M.—Break for Lunch.

2 P.M. to 6 P.M.—Institutional Visits.

6-15 P.M. to 7-15 P.M.—Symposium: "Social Services in Switzerland."

8 P.M. to 9 P.M.—Meeting of the Committee on Standardization of courses in Social work.

Saturday, 31st December, 1949.

9-30 A.M. to 10-30 A.M.—Symposium: "Social Services in Norway".

10-30 A.M. to 10-45 A.M.—Summing up by the Chairman.

11 A.M. to 1 P.M.—Plenary Session.

Presentation of Sectional Reports by:—

Mr. K. S. Nigam Secretary "State and Social Service" Section.

Mrs. Renuka Ray. "Family, Child & Youth Welfare."

Dr. Radha Kamal Mukerji. "Co-ordination of Social Work—its possibilities and Difficulties".

Miss Dorothy Moses. "Social Work in Industry." Concluding speech by the Chairman. Vote of thanks.

1-30 P.M. to 3 P.M.—Break for Lunch.

3 P.M. to 7 P.M.—Visits.

7 P.M. to 8 P.M.—Meeting of the Central Executive Committee at the National Y.W.C.A. School of Social Work.

"EXHIBITION OF SOCIAL WORK"

Chairman: Dr. S. N. Sen. Secretary: Mr. M. S. Gore.

Participant Countries :—Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, U.S.A., & U.S.S.R. Agencies:—ILO, WHO, UNICEF, U.N. World Alliance of Y.M.C.A. World Y.M.C.A., International Red Cross, International Conference of Social Work, National Conference of Social Work U.S.A., Messrs. Hoffmann La Roche.

Indian Agencies:—Yeravada Industrial School, Bombay City Social Education Committee, Society for the prevention of infantile paralysis, Children Aid Society, Bombay, Madras and Delhi, National Y.W.C.A. School of Social Work, Y.W.C.A., Employment Exchange Government of India, Chief Adviser, Factories, Ministry of Rehabilitation, Kashi Vidyapeeth Institute of Social Science, India Village Service etc.

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—THIRD SESSION, DELHI,
DECEMBER 26TH to 31ST 1949

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIRST DAY
(December 26th, 1949).

The Third Annual Session of the Indian Conference of Social Work commenced its proceedings on Monday, December 26th, 1949 at 5 p.m. in the Convocation Hall, University of Delhi, Delhi, in the presence of a large and distinguished gathering including over 300 delegates and observers from all over India and abroad. It was the first time that about 20 foreign delegates, fraternal observers and others representing Asian as well as European countries and international bodies attended the Session.

Mrs. Rameshwari Nehru, Chairman of the Reception Committee welcomed the gathering.

Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Vice-President of the Conference, proposing the President for the Session eulogised the services of Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, Minister for Public Works, Government of Bombay as a member of the medical profession, an administrator and a social worker. Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta was then unanimously elected President for the year 1950.

Mrs. Gulestan Billimoria, Ag. Hon. Gen. Secretary of the Conference, presenting a brief outline of the Annual Report for the year 1949, described the various activities of the Conference during the course of the year and pointed out the salient features of the Delhi Session.

The Hon'ble Dr. Jivraj Mehta then made the Presidential Speech.

Mr. M. S. Gore, Hon. Gen. Secretary, Delhi Branch of the Conference, proposed a vote of thanks to the Chair and expressed his deep sense of gratefulness for the most encouraging attendance of social workers at the conference.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SECOND DAY
(December 27th, 1949)

The business of the second day of the Session commenced on Tuesday, December 27, 1949 at 10.30 a.m. with opening addresses by the Chairmen of the four Sections of the Conference on "State and Social Services," "Family, Child and Youth Welfare", "Coordination of Social Work" and "Social Work in Industry", by Hon'ble Shri V. L. Mehta, Mrs. Hannah Sen, Dr. Radhakamal Mukerjee and Miss Dorothy Moses respectively.

Mrs. Hannah Sen read out the opening address of Mrs. Renuka Ray, the Chairman of the Section "Family, Child and Youth Welfare", who could not be present owing to unavoidable circumstances.

Social Research Committee.—After the opening addresses of the Sectional Chairmen, a meeting of the Social Research Committee, which was appointed last year by the Central Executive Committee, was held under the chairmanship of Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, President of the Conference. The Committee reviewed the work done during the past year and discussed a programme for the furtherance of Social Research in India on scientific lines.

Sectional Meetings.—In the afternoon the two Sections on "State and Social Services" and "Social Work in Industry" met under their respective chairmen.

State and Social Services.—The proceedings of the section on "State and Social Services" began with a paper on "Rural Reconstruction and Welfare", which in the unavoidable absence of its author Dr. B. Natarajan, Economic Adviser to the Government of Madras, was read by Dr. G. L. Mukhopadhyaya.

The paper was followed by a talk by the official discussant Rev. Loy Long, of Bombay, who emphasized that rural resources and raw materials should be utilised and that the initiative should come not directly from Government, but from enthusiastic social workers and villagers themselves. In the discussion Messrs. Laxmi Narayan from Cuttack and J. P. Gupta and others took part. The fraternal observer from Israel, Mr. Chaim Yepheth, gave an account of social service activities and the refugee problem in his country and maintained that social welfare schemes did not so much depend upon financial resources as on the team of devoted social workers. Before the sitting concluded for the day, a small sub-committee consisting of 8 members was set up to draft formal recommendations to the Plenary Session.

Social Work In Industry.—The section "Social Work in Industry" met under the chairmanship of Miss Dorothy Moses. Mr. A. S. Iyengar, Labour Commissioner, Bombay, in his paper on "Social Work in Industry by the State" emphasized the need of scrupulous observance of the Industrial Truce, advocated partnership in industry and enforcement of comprehensive social security measures. He also urged the adoption of better standards of factory inspection, comprehensive welfare measures, a bold housing programme and education for workers, both general and technical. Mr. Nizammuddin Ahmed, the official discussant, pointed out the need for a more elaborate system of factory inspection. He said that the employer should be compelled to make arrangements for the education of the workers' children and stressed the need for workers' proper housing and for introducing unemployment benefit schemes.

Dr. M. M. Gupta, Deputy Chief Adviser of Factories, Ministry of Labour, Government of India, spoke on the

problem of increasing industrial accidents giving interesting statistics. Mr. M. D. Madon from Jamshedpur spoke on Workers' Cooperatives and Mr. Nair also from Jamshedpur, on the need of saving the workers from tyranny of money-lenders. Mr. Sourimuthu from Hyderabad suggested the setting up of research institutes to study specific labour problems. Other speakers emphasized different aspects of Labour Welfare.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRD DAY (December 28th, 1949)

On the third day, Wednesday December 28th, 1949 the Sections on "State and Social Services" and "Social Work in Industry" resumed their deliberations in the morning.

The former Section discussed problems relating to State responsibility for social work on which a paper was presented by Shri S. R. Venkataraman of the Servants of India Society, Madras. The official discussant, Prof. Frank Thakurdas of Delhi and seven other speakers took part in the discussion. The question of unemployment and social security, the need for trained welfare personnel and the lack of adequate administrative machinery to look after the application of social legislation were among the problems considered. The trend of observations was largely in favour of fixing on the State the responsibility for matters like social education, child, woman and youth welfare and care of the socially, mentally and physically handicapped.

The "Social Work in Industry" Section heard a paper submitted by Mr. E. J. S. Ram of the Imperial Chemical Industries, Bombay, on "Social Work in Industry by the Employer." The paper was read by Mr. Nageshwaran of Calcutta. The official discussant Mr. Jack Lee of the Institute of Personnel Management, Calcutta, said that the employers could be held responsible for the welfare of the workers inside the factory.

He pointed out that most of the welfare work which the management could be expected to undertake was really implied in good management and was in the interest of the employers themselves.

Mr. Suraj Prasad Awasthi from Cawnpore made a plea for the creation of welfare funds which should be placed at the disposal of trade unions and other agencies for carrying on welfare work among the workers. Mr. Iyengar, Labour Commissioner, Bombay, said that the Bombay Government contemplated the establishment of a Welfare Trust Fund for financing welfare activities. He urged the necessity of raising the status of labour officers, if necessary, through statutory provisions.

Other speakers referred to the problem of women and children in industry, formulation of minimum welfare requirements, provision of rest pauses and canteen facilities.

In the afternoon the Sections on "Family, Child and Youth Welfare" and "Coordination of Social Work" met under their respective chairmen.

The "Family, Child and Youth Welfare" Section had a discussion based on a paper presented by Mr. M. S. Gore of Delhi on Family and Child Welfare.

Dr. (Mrs.) Kamala Bhoota, Dr. (Mrs.) Winifred Bryce and Dr. (Miss.) G. R. Banerjee who were the official discussants contributed to the discussion on the paper. Dr. Bhoota emphasised the need for a proper outlook on child welfare work and a philosophy of parenthood, which would enable parents to look upon the child as an individual and help him develop into an independent individual. She also stressed the need for clarification of the aims of education, planned education, adequate play facilities in the school and the importance of the emotional needs of the child.

Dr. Bryce spoke on the significance of the family as a primary social unit in matters

of social planning. She felt that rural areas were badly in need of adequate recreational facilities. Dr. Banerjee, speaking on the health needs of the child, advocated Home Treatment Clinics, mobile hospitals and visiting nurses in view of inadequate hospital services. She expressed the urgent need of Family Welfare Agencies to do preventive work through building up parent associations and bringing out popular literature on child development for the use of parents.

Four other speakers dwelt on some of the important aspects of child welfare in relation to health conditions. At the end of the sitting the Chairman Mrs. Hannah Sen summed up the salient points of the discussion during the Session.

The Section on "Coordination of Social Work its Possibilities and Difficulties" had a very enlightening paper by Dr. Edward Lindemann of Columbia University, which in his absence was elucidated by Miss Evelyn Hersey, Social Welfare Attaché to the American Embassy.

Dr. B. H. Mehta and Mr. S. F. Desai, of Bombay, presented papers on the subject emphasising the need for coordination in social work.

The Chairman of the Section Dr. Radhakamal Mukherji suggested organisation of councils of social service agencies in each region supported by a corresponding central organisation for financial campaign. The Executive Secretary of the Conference Mr. B. Chatterjee acquainted the Section with the various efforts made by the Conference so far to bring about cooperation and coordination between private and government social welfare agencies in India.

Mr. J. Barnabas of Bombay, the official discussant, suggested that the Conference should prepare a blue-print for the welfare departments, both provincial and central.

Other speakers stressed the need of immediate coordination of welfare work in various fields by different agencies.

The day's proceedings terminated with a reception arranged to meet the delegates and observers of the Conference at 6.30 p.m.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FOURTH DAY

(Thursday December 29th, 1949)

The third session of the "State and Social Services" Section was held at 11 a.m. when the Hon'ble Shri R. K. Bose, Minister for Backward Classes' Welfare, Government of Orissa, spoke on the welfare of tribal people. Drawing attention to the magnitude of the tribal problem which embraced a population of two and a half crores in the country the speaker brought out some of the less known qualities of these people. The Minister saw little justification for regarding them as uncivilised and felt that they could be reclaimed not through arrogance and patronage, but by sympathy and understanding. Shri Bose referred to the provision of the new Constitution which aimed at safeguarding the future of the tribals and he stressed the need for an increasing number of social workers participating in tribal welfare work.

Most of the 10 speakers on this subject asserted the need for removing the disabilities and difficulties that stood in the way of reclaiming this neglected, but nevertheless vital, cross-section of India's population.

At the end of the Session the Section formulated their 12 recommendations to be submitted to the Plenary Session on Saturday, December 31st 1949.

The proceedings of the final session of the "Social Work in Industry" Section commenced with a paper on "Social Work in Industry from the viewpoint of the Trade Unions" read by Shri Dinker Desai of the Servants of India Society, Bombay. He said that certain fundamentals must be achieved before welfare work could succeed. For instance, living wages, adequate leisure and education for the workers

were necessary before they could take advantage of welfare facilities offered or evolve their own programmes of welfare through trade unions. He also emphasised the need for the development of genuine trade union leadership. He added that political parties were exploiting the trade unions and a free trade union movement was necessary in order to serve the interest of the workers. Finally, he suggested that in all welfare schemes and programmes the workers should be given a dominant voice. The trade unions should be actively associated with the planning and administration of all activities affecting the welfare of the workers.

The official discussant Prof. D. K. Sanyal of Calcutta regretted that the trade unions had so far made no concerted effort in the direction of labour welfare. He said that welfare plans must be based on the real needs of the workers and that the trade unions could undertake valuable and useful work in the spheres of health education, housing and transport of workers. He also suggested that the trade unions should set apart a definite portion of their funds for welfare work.

Mr. Madon of Jamshedpur emphasised the role of trade unions in tackling the problem of illiteracy among workers and promoting their health and education. Dr. Dastur of Bombay said that it was vital to recognise the personality of each worker through intimate personal approach.

Mr. Udai Bir Singh, Deputy Labour Commissioner, U.P., said that the State, Employers and Trade Unions should co-operate in welfare programmes and co-ordinate their activities.

The Section then concluded its deliberations by drafting recommendations to the Plenary Session.

In the afternoon at 2.30 p.m. the Section on "Family, Child and Youth Welfare"

met again when Mr. N. F. Kaikobad of Bombay presented a comprehensive exposition in his paper on Youth Welfare. S. S. Dhavan also presented an interesting paper on youth Welfare.

Mr. N. P. Sharma, the official discussant, agreed with the speaker and suggested the starting of study circles for the purpose of youth leadership on a wide scale. He also stressed the necessity of bringing out publications in regional languages.

Other speakers dwelt on some of the immediate aspects of youth training and suggested different activities for youth development.

The Section then proceeded to draft its recommendations in the light of the discussions during the two sittings.

Continuing their deliberations on "Co-ordination in Social Work" the fourth Section on this subject heard papers by Mrs. M. N. Clubwalla and Mr. S. R. Venkataraman of Madras.

The Section keenly felt the urgency of coordination in order to avoid duplication and waste of resources. Other speakers emphasised the importance of concerted and cooperative programme in social welfare programmes of various agencies in the country. The deliberations of the Section concluded with the drafting of resolutions for the Plenary Session.

This was followed by a prolonged discussion of interesting questions relating to the subject with which the proceedings of the fourth day of the third annual session of the Conference terminated.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTH DAY

(Friday, December 30th, 1949)

The second Annual General Meeting of the Indian Conference of Social Work was held on December 30th at 11 a.m. in the University Convocation Hall, Delhi, under the Chairmanship of the Hon'ble Dr. Jivraj

N. Mehta to adopt the Honorary General Secretary's Annual Report and the Statement of Accounts for the year 1949 and to elect the President and three Vice-Presidents for the year 1950 and of the members of the Central Executive Committee of the Indian Conference of Social Work for the term 1950-52 in place of the 1/3 retiring members.

Mrs. Gulestan R. B. Billimoria, the Honorary General Secretary, presented the Annual Report and the statement of accounts, Prof. H. P. Maiti of Patna moved the adoption of the report and Mr. John Barnabas, Bombay, seconded it.

Mr. K. K. Kapani of Calcutta moved the adoption of the statement of accounts and Dr. Raj of Lucknow seconded it.

The report and the statement of accounts were duly adopted.

Resolutions moved from the Chair electing Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Pandit H. N. Kunzru and Mrs. John Mathai as Vice-Presidents for the year 1950, and the following members to the Central Executive Committee of the Conference for the term 1950-52 in place of the 1/3 retiring members, were unanimously adopted.

1. Assam: Rani Manjula Devi of Sidli.

2. Bihar: Prof. H. P. Maiti, Patna

Dr. Mrs. Kagal, Jamshedpur

3. Broach: Dr. Miss Ganguben Hadkar

4. Poona: Mr. D. V. Kulkarni

5. Ahmedabad: Mrs. Sarladevi Sarabhai

6. Delhi: Mrs. Hannah Sen

Mr. M. S. Gore.

7. Hyderabad: Dr. C. F. Chenoy

8. Mysore: Mr. P. Kodand Rao

Mr. S. Sadanand.

9. United Provinces: Miss Sosa Mathews

Justice Shankar Saran

Mr. S. N. Ranade

Further the President was empowered to nominate one member each from Baroda,

Hyderabad, Coimbatore and East Punjab after considering the local situation.

A resolution proposing to appoint Messers P. C. Hansotia & Co., Bombay, as the official auditors to the Indian Conference of Social Work was also moved from the Chair and was carried unanimously. The meeting adopted some amendments to the constitution of the Conference.

It was decided to observe the 20th of February 1950 as the 'Social Welfare Day' throughout the country.

Special arrangements were made by the Conference for the delegates to visit some of the social service agencies in Delhi. The delegates and observers visited the following:—

1. Kingsway Refugee Camp.
2. Harijan Sewak Sangh.
3. Delhi School of Social Work.
4. Satyavati Memorial Trust.
5. Home for Women & Children.
6. Displaced Women's Training Centre.
7. School for the Blind.
8. Okhala.
9. Jamia Milia.
10. The Home for Aged and Infirm.
11. Kasturba Training Centre.
12. Prudah Bagh Municipal Adult Education Centre for Women.
13. Children's Aid Society.

A meeting of the Committee on Standardization of Courses in Social Work was held at 8 p.m. under the Chairmanship of Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta when the question of maintaining a high standard and imparting professional education for social work on

scientific lines was considered. It was felt that there was need for instituting two types of courses in social work: One short term intensive course for undergraduates, untrained social workers working in the field and another extensive long term course at the post-graduate level.

The Committee keenly felt the urgent need of standardizing professional instruction obtaining in various training institutions in the country.

The work of the fifth day of the session thus concluded.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH & FINAL DAY

(Saturday, December 31st 1949)

The Plenary Session commenced its work at 11 a.m. when Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta was in the Chair. The recommendations of the four Sections of the Conference were then presented to the Session, item by item, were followed by prolonged discussion at different stages of the proceedings of the Session. The recommendations of the four Sections, as approved by the Plenary session, are given pages.

In the afternoon the delegates and observers visited some of the social service institutions in Delhi.

At 7 p.m. a meeting of the newly elected Central Executive Committee was held when Dr. Jivraj Mehta presided.

Thus ended the third annual session of the Indian Conference of Social Work after six days of busy, useful and momentous deliberations.

WELCOME SPEECH by RECEPTION COMMITTEE CHAIRMAN

Mrs. Rameshwari Nehru, Chairman of the Reception Committee in the course of her speech welcoming the distinguished guests and delegates of the 3rd Session of the Indian conference of Social work said: "Many important and intricate problems need the deliberation and decision of the members. During the coming days hard work awaits them, and those who brought with them life long contact with social problems will be able to solve the many difficulties that confront the Social workers. More than the actual deliberations, the conference provides an occasion for the pooling together of experiences, the exchange of thought and the mingling together of old workers from all over the country, which, by itself, is a great gain and a great educative factor.

Social work is vaster in its dimensions, more vital and fundamental in its effect than any work in other spheres of life, political or economic. It touches the very basis of society. Without it all other work remains on the surface. Its worth and importance were not generally realised while the country was engaged in its freedom struggle. But after the attainment of political freedom its real import has been appreciated by all and erstwhile scoffers and non-believers in social service have been converted into its ardent supporters. Political freedom of India would not have been so meaningless, if adequate social work had been done amongst the masses.

Nevertheless, it would not be right to imagine that no work has been done in this sphere. Many wise and far-sighted people through organisations like the Arya Samaj, Rama Krishna Mission, the Brahmo Samaj and the Servants of India Society have contributed a great deal towards the

intellectual and moral advancement of the people. Simultaneously with the Indian National Congress a social reform congress also came into being. It worked successfully for several years. But during the days of great political upheavals that followed, this conference lost its vitality and became defunct. Yet great personages continued their efforts in this direction even in the midst of a whirl-wind of political activity. Mahatma Gandhi called it constructive work and turned it into an essential part of the congress programme which organisation uptill then was exclusively political in character. He placed before the country a comprehensive programme of constructive work covering the whole life. The many All-India Sanghas like the Harijan Sevak Sangh and the Kasturba Trust Gram Udyog Sangh to which he gave birth and life are expanding their activities day by day and are full of vitality. They have also brought stability to the political field and with his blessing with us great things from those Sanghas, can be expected.

Social work must be revolutionary in its content. It must bring about a reformation of society, a changed social out-look, a different appraisement of the values of life, an awakened conscience and an urge to work for change. If it is confined to giving relief only it loses its value and does not reach far enough. The aim of the social workers should be to eradicate the causes which lead to situations needing relief. Only the social worker has to do it by conversion and persuasion, by personal example and by the sheer force of his selfless service which should keep in view the fundamental good of all. It may be a longer way as men of a revolutionary mentality may urge but it is the surer way and in the end quicker and more stable

way. This method avoids the reactions arising out of all violent upheavals.

Another problem is to determine what should be done by the government and what left to voluntary effort. It is evident that no voluntary organisation however big and resourceful can ever have means enough to do all that needs to be done. To meet the need it is necessary that all welfare work relating to health, culture, education and economics is undertaken by the government to its fullest capacity. A modern state has to be a welfare state serving the people and looking after their total well being. This conception of the state is held not only in the modern world but has been upheld throughout the ages. As it is the intention of India to develop into a welfare state the government should expand their welfare Services to the utmost and a social welfare ministry should be started as soon as finances permit. A social welfare ministry, if started, can do a great deal to coordinate and expand the work which is already being done.

Governments or States however expansive their sweep may be can never get to the depths likely to be touched by voluntary service. They can never in the true sense or in an adequate way replace voluntary service. The need therefore of voluntary service at all times shall ever remain in spite of all that the government may do. Mis-

sionary work has its own place, and that a very big one. The struggles and strifes of voluntary workers and organisations however disagreeable and unpleasant to them bring their own rich results both for the individual and as well as society. Governments should look to them and seek their help and guidance in all the welfare work they undertake.

But the social worker has to deserve this position before he can rise up to it. He has to see that his motives are always pure. The effectiveness of the social worker depends on his personal purity. Spiritual force is needed for this purpose which comes with self purification. A social worker to be a true social worker has to rise day by day in moral stature.

For efficient working training is as much needed for social workers as for others. Encouragement of scientific study and the training of social workers both of which items indeed are essential to tackle the problems in a balanced manner and every ounce of energy put to the greatest use. This can be achieved through the co-ordination of the innumerable social welfare organisations working in the different parts of the country.

Social service does not attract many people. It lacks publicity, excitement and prominence which goes with political work. That is why the number of constructive workers is very small in India."

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE ACTING HON. GENERAL SECRETARY for the year 1949

Mrs. Gulestan R. B. Billimoria the acting Hon. General Secretary presented the second annual report of the Indian Conference of Social Work. At the outset she congratulated Dr. Bulsara the former Hon. General Secretary of the conference on his appointment as the social affairs officer to the U. N. Secretariat for the Far Eastern countries. Dr. Bulsara resigned as Hon. General Secretary in August 1949 and Mrs. Billimoria took charge of the office as acting Hon. General Secretary in August 1949. During the year Mr. B. Chatterjee continued as the Executive Secretary in charge of the central office ably assisted by Miss S. F. Dastur, Hon. Assistant Secretary. The only office assistant, Mr. D. B. Kulkarni, resigned in August 1949 and Mr. G. G. Kulkarni has been appointed in his place.

A farewell function was arranged in Bombay on June 21, 1949 to bid good bye to Dr. Bulsara and was largely attended by social workers in Bombay. Sir R. P. Masani presided over the function while Mr. Chatterjee, the Executive secretary, paid appropriate tributes to Dr. Bulsara's services.

Continuing the report she said: "Conferences are often accused of merely ventilating fine sentiments without corresponding action. It is said that at a Conference we do nothing but reiterate the obvious. Unfortunately, the word Conference in the title of our organisation has given rise to a certain degree of misunderstanding. While the name is Conference, our functions are not limited only to organizing Conferences. It is a platform, an association of social workers, and an organization for promotion, stimulation, and co-ordination of social work on a scientific

basis besides serving as a centre for Information Exchange and Research Work in India.

Unfortunately, we are working under severe limitations, inadequacy of finances, staff, office space and necessary adjuncts and equipment of a modern office. Yet we have modestly endeavoured to promote all the objects of the Conference. If correspondence with the Central Office is any indication of a cross section of interest that the Conference has aroused, we may be sure that the organization has achieved quite a bit within the short space of two years.

Madras Session Recommendations.—The Recommendations of the Madras Session were forwarded to the Premiers of all the Provincial and State Governments and Ministers of the Central Cabinet. The Ministry of Labour, Government of India and the Department of Backward Classes, Government of Orissa have implemented and even anticipated some of the recommendations passed at the Madras Session of the Conference, pertaining to welfare in Industry and Rural Reconstruction and Welfare Sections. The Hon'ble Minister for Medical Health and Education, East Punjab Government assures us that he has asked heads of departments to suggest measures for the implementation of these recommendations. The Government of the Central Provinces and Berar has circulated the recommendations of the Madras Session for information and favour of taking "such action as may be considered necessary". It has not been possible, to follow up each case individually to find out the exact manner in which each recommendation has been implemented."

She requested Government delegates and

Provincial representatives to work for the implementation of the recommendations of each session of the Conference, individually and collectively and to inform the Central office of the results of their efforts.

Social Welfare Day.—She Continued: "Another way in which the attention of the Government and the people could have been focussed on our annual recommendations is by the observance of a SOCIAL WELFARE DAY, when echo meetings could be held all over India simultancously. Accordingly April 24, 1949, was observed as a Social Welfare Day this year.

Among the objects for the observance of the Day were the following:—

1. To hold a Public Meeting to explain the aims and objects of the Conference and the salient points in the Recommendations made by the Madras Session.
2. To encourage local organizers to take up a particular field of work in the course of the year (the value of intensive and enlightened Social Work and Research in the country with a vast number of handicapped population and the need for enlisting social workers was also to be adequately stressed.)
3. To collect funds for the local State or Provincial Branch of the Indian Conference of Social Work.
4. To seek Cooperation of all the existing Social Welfare Agencies in the town or city for the observance of the Day.
5. To demand wherever possible the opening of a Department of Social Welfare and a School or Class of Social Work.

Accordingly meetings were held all over the country and messages from our President, the Hon'ble Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, and from H. E. Raja Sir Maharaj Singh

were widely distributed and in some cases translated into local languages.

Many new projects were launched on that day the most significant one being the establishment of the "Community Chest and Council" in Jamshedpur City; the opening of a district branch of the I. C. S. W. at Broach; rural meetings in Hyderabad State; the inauguration of a cleanliness campaign in Batanagar; feeding of children in Vellore, and raising of funds for the local Remand Home in Manmad.

Coordination of Social Work.—The I. C. S. W., is not a social service agency ministering directly to the needs of the people; it is rather an organization for stimulation, planning and coordination of Social Welfare activities, rendering guidance wherever necessary; it is a Centre for Research, Information and Publication.

As such, coordination of social work becomes the foundation on which our organization has to be built. This is necessary in the interests of economy and efficiency. It may, however, be remembered that the task of coordination becomes difficult in a country like India where a variety of standards and agencies prevail, where 'organization' has only recently entered the parlance of social service and where systematic and scientific work for welfare and the amelioration of human suffering is still viewed with scepticism.

Nevertheless, it is absolutely indispensable that we have a fairly correct data about existing social welfare agencies before we may effectively coordinate the activities of various agencies. Then again, coordination at regional and local levels has to be carefully planned.

To-day besides such All India bodies as the Indian Red Cross, the Harijan Sevak Sangh, the All India Women's Conference, the Kasturba Trust, Adivasi Seva Sangh, the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A. etc., which

have national headquarters of their own provincial or local associations, there are two more organisations besides the I. C. S. W. which have almost similar or mutually co-extensive fields of activity. They are the United Council for Relief and Welfare and the All India Social Service Council recently formed by the Ministry of Education.

The U. C. R. W. was originally established with a view to tackling the problem of Refugees and their Rehabilitation; in April 1948 it was established on a permanent basis.

In the year 1937, a memorandum submitted to the Government of India stressed the need for establishing a social service unit in India under the aegis of the Government. In 1940, the Central Advisory Board of Education appointed a sub-committee under the chairmanship of Sir Maurice Gywer, which recommended that a central body called the A. I. S. S. Council with an Institute for research and a training school for social workers should be brought into existence. No action, however, was taken on the recommendation for almost nine years. Then, in June 1947, the Ministry called a preliminary meeting of representatives of some of the welfare work agencies in India where it was decided to form the said Council with aims and objects almost similar to those of the I. C. S. W. and the U. C. R. W. Ever since the first notification, about the A. I. S. S. C. the Hon. General Secretary has been carrying on correspondence with the Ministry of Education impressing on them that the I. C. S. W. was voted into existence by no less than 450 delegates from all over India representing various social welfare Institutions and trying to convince them of the need to jointly consider the problem of coextensive domain of more than one body doing the same type of work. In reply we have been told "The Government of India

feel that the field of social work in India being so vast and unexplored there is little danger of duplication and overlapping of work between different organisations." The Working Committee has however decided to send the Hon. Gen. Secretary as a representative of the I. C. S. W. on the A. I. S. S. C. and it has also been decided that the Executive Secretary should accompany the General Secretary to the meeting of the council and participate in the deliberations in his or her absence.

Under the wise and able leadership of Statesman Social Worker, H. E. Shri C. Rajgopalachari and the sincere and genuine efforts of our President the Hon'ble Rajkumari Amrit Kaur a sub-committee of U. C. R. W. has agreed to meet the representatives of the I.C.S.W. to discuss ways and means of better cooperation and co-ordination between these two organisations. We hope that in course of time it will be possible to hold a joint meeting of the Executive Committees of all the three organisations, and to demarcate the field of activity of each. No one can possibly deny that there is a great need in India of an organisation for disaster relief and rehabilitation of the victims. Similarly there is a need for an Advisory Board to advise the Government on Social welfare matters from time to time and for an organisation to co-ordinate, stimulate and organize the activities of Social Service agencies and to work as an Information and Research Centre.

Directory of Social Service Agencies.—The need for an up-to-date directory of Social Service Agencies has long been felt and as an experiment, a sub-committee was appointed in Bombay under the Chairmanship of Prof. P. A. Wadia to prepare a Directory of Social Service Agencies in Greater Bombay. After a great deal of difficulty the sub-committee has completed its work and the Directory has now been published. We

hope that in course of the next three or four years we shall have an All India Directory of Social Service Agencies.

Memorandum on Juvenile Delinquency.—Another small experiment in coordination of social work was also carried out by the Central Office recently. The Ministry of Education convened an Education Ministers' Conference in June 1949 and Dr. J. F. Bulsara was invited to attend it. He was about to leave India at the time and subsequently the meeting was also postponed. It was, therefore, decided by the Working Committee to call a meeting of all those who are either working or are interested in the prevention and treatment of Juvenile Delinquency and to prepare a memorandum to be submitted on the subject to the Ministry for consideration of the meeting.

Memorandum on Family and Child Welfare.—As you may have noticed in organizing this year's sectional meeting, we are trying another modest experiment: instead of inviting papers, where possible, we have asked one or more persons to prepare memoranda on the basis of an outline provided by the Central Office. In this connection, we have set up a small group to prepare memorandum on Family and Child Welfare which will be placed for discussion at the Conference. You will be glad to learn that we have now been requested by the Division of Social Activities, United Nations, to set up a permanent Working Group for Family, Child and Youth Welfare and on the treatment and prevention of Crime. Through the Government of India, the United Nations has recently asked us to prepare a study on the problem of "Destitute Children in India" on the basis of an outline provided by the Secretariat. We have accepted the responsibility and hope to set up a National Working Group to study the question very shortly. The report has to

be submitted to the United Nations Secretariat by the 30th June 1950. We hope to make this a Permanent Group to study various questions from time to time and if the experiment is successful, we may appoint similar working groups for other fields as well.

Information Exchange.—During the course of the year, the Executive Secretary received many inquiries from Social Service Agencies and Social Workers asking for information varying from admission to a school of social work to launching new welfare projects. The work relating to an information exchange could better progress if there was a separate division in the Central Office. We are fortunate in receiving the latest information regarding social work abroad specially from the United States, Canada and England, which can be made available to Social workers in India requiring such information.

Besides disseminating information in India the Executive Secretary collected information on Traffic in Women and Children in India, Social Work Education and some literature on Juvenile Delinquency and sent it to the Social Affairs Secretariat of the United Nations. It may interest you to know that, in my personal capacity, I was also asked by the U.N.O. to suggest names of Indian Experts in various fields of social work in India which I have already done.

Social Research Committee.—At a meeting of the Central Executive Committee held in Madras on 28th December 1948, a Social Research Committee consisting of the following members was appointed:—

Dr. J. M. Kumarappa (Bombay), Dr. Miss K. H. Cama (Delhi), Prof. H. P. Maiti (Patna), Lt. Col. C. K. Lakshmanan (Calcutta), Dr. M. V. Moorthy (Bombay), Mr. J. Barnabas (Convenor), Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao (Delhi), Mr. J. Lee (Calcutta), Mr.

K. G. Shivaswamy (Madras) Dr. B. Natarajan, Dr. J. F. Bulsara *(Ex-Officio).

The main function of the Committee is to suggest subjects of Social Research in various fields indicating the need, urgency, scope and value of particular subjects or problems of research in the various parts of the country and also to request various institutions training social workers to take up certain problems for research by students, scholars and welfare workers.

Accordingly, a circular letter was issued to institutions training social workers, and Universities requesting them to send a list of subjects in the field of Sociology and Social Work on which research is being carried on or papers are being prepared by the students, lecturers and professors.

International Conference.—At the suggestion of our President, the Hon'ble Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, we requested Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, who is the Vice President of the International Conference of Social Work to suggest the holding of the next session of the International Conference of Social Work in India, when it is due to meet in 1952. We are very happy to announce that Dr. Kumarappa has been successful in persuading the Executive Committee of the International Conference of Social Work to agree to this proposal. The next Regional Conference of Social Work organized by the International Conference of Social Work will be held in Paris in the middle of the next year.

Gift from "Hospites".—We have received a gift of \$ 400/- from "Hospites", United States, through Mr. Joseph Anderson, Executive Secretary, American Association of Social Workers, which we propose to utilize in buying literature or for financing social workers so as to enable them to attend foreign conferences and meetings.

Seminar for Far Eastern Countries.—The Far Eastern Secretariat, United Nations,

Division of Social Affairs at Bangkok are planning to project in India a Seminar on Social Welfare for the Far Eastern Countries. It is hoped that the Seminar will be held immediately before or after the fourth Annual Session of the Indian Conference of Social Work.

While dealing with foreign contacts I have pleasure in mentioning that Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Vice President of the Indian and the International Conference of Social Work was invited to a United Nations International Expert Committee on the prevention and treatment of crime. He was one of the seven experts chosen from all over the world and was the only one from Asia.

During the year, I had been to the United States and Canada and Mexico and visited a large number of Social Welfare Institutions. I have also established useful contacts with social workers in those countries. On behalf of the Indian Conference of Social Work, Miss Parin Vakharia and Mr. M. Nanavati attended the 76th Session of the National Conference of Social Work in Cleveland and Mr. Nanavati has submitted a report.

We were also invited to send representatives to the International Summer School at Vasky, near Stockholm, Sweden. We circulated the invitation among our Provincial Branches but owing to our limited financial resources no one could be deputed.

Constitutional Changes.—The Constitution of the Central Organization has its own shortcomings. We, therefore, sent a circular to the members of various branches of the Conference to elicit their opinion and suggestions for amending the Constitution. The response was not very encouraging and from the diversity of suggestions made, it became clearer that the time was not yet ripe for amending the Constitution and in course of time the entire Constitution should be redrafted. The matter was carefully dis-

cussed at a meeting of the Central Executive Committee (April 9, 1949, Bombay), and it was decided that all proposed amendments to the Constitution be discussed at a Meeting of the Central Executive Committee in 1950, and the Constitution amended at the Annual Meeting of the Conference in December."

We are receiving many complaints regarding the high Institutional Membership fee of Rs. 10/- per representing member and the restriction on the number of delegates participating in annual Conferences from each Institution. The feeling being very strong, the Working Committee has found a solution to the tangle which may be acceptable to all concerned. We now propose to fix a I. M. affiliation fee of Rs. 10/- per year allowing one vote for the Business Session, and allowing a maximum of five non-voting delegates to participate in the annual session of the Conference. This will, I hope, standardize the affiliation procedure and satisfy the demand for greater representation.

Finances.—The financial year opened with a balance of Rs. 8,382/1/6. To this may be added Rs. 10,000/- which was the amount of conditional grant from the Government of India and the said amount was received in the current financial year.

During the current year, the Conference secured the following grants-in-aid:—

The Ministry of Health, Government of India has once again kindly sanctioned an outright grant of Rs. 5,000/- and a conditional grant of Rs. 10,000/- subject to the Indian Conference raising an equivalent amount. It is becoming difficult to raise Rs. 10,000/- every year from Bombay only, hence we wrote to our Provincial Branches to collect Rs. 2,000/- each. In response to our request, only the indefatigable Mrs. Clubwala rose to the occasion and enrolled Her Highness the Maharani Saheba of Bhavnagar, the President of the Madras

Provincial Branch as a Patron and His Excellency the Governor of Madras and Mrs. T. D. Asher of Coimbatore as Life Members. No other Branches or individual members have so far collected any donations for the Central Organization.

The Departments of Education, Government of Bombay, and U.P., the Local Self-Government, Bihar, and the Hyderabad State have sanctioned a grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000/- each, for the present year, and the Government of Mysore has also donated a sum of Rs. 100/-. All these Governments have, therefore, been enrolled as State Members of the Conference.

The American Women's Club, Bombay, the N. M. Wadia Charities, and the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, Bombay, have donated Rs. 1,000/- each for the current year, while the Ratan Tata Trust has given us Rs. 500/-. Among individual donors, Sir Ness Wadia has donated Rs. 100/-. Besides these amounts a sum of Rs. 6,635-12-0 was transferred to the I.C.S.W. account as balance left over from the first All India Conference of Social Work. The statement of accounts presented with the Report will throw more light on our financial position.

In April 1949, at a meeting of the Central Executive Committee, a Finance Committee was appointed which has suggested lowering of Life Membership and Patron's fees as also the qualifications with a view to making it possible for a larger number of persons to be enrolled as Patrons and Life Members and thus help raising funds.

We hope that with the constitutional changes and larger membership through well organized Provincial and State Branches, we shall be able to claim an Institutional Membership of 100 agencies and individual membership of 5,000 persons, by 1952 when the International Conference meets in India. I appeal to all the members present here to help us in launching a

membership enrolment campaign on the eve of the next Social Welfare Day observance.

Provincial Branches.—To-day our Branches have been formed or are in the process of formation in the following Provinces: *Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Delhi, Madras, Mysore.* Besides, District branches are functioning at Jamshedpur, Broach and Coimbatore. A branch is also in the process of formation in Hyderabad State.

Unfortunately, it has not been possible for our Executive Secretary to undertake a tour of various branches and the provinces with a view to organizing and stimulating interest in social services. Until the Centre is assured of a secure and stable financial support, it is not possible for us to engage a large staff so as to leave the Executive Secretary free to undertake travelling for the purpose of consolidation of the organization. However, in view of the forthcoming session of the International Conference of Social Work to be held in India in 1952, it is desirable that the Executive Secretary undertakes as wide a tour as possible to arouse interest and to raise finances for the session which may come to about Rs. 60,000/- to Rs. 70,000/-.

Publication.—One of the aims of the Indian Conference of Social Work is the publication of suitable literature pertaining to the field of Social Work and Welfare Services in India. In spite of many handicaps, the Central Office has been able to publish the Proceedings of the first All India Conference on Social Work held in Bombay in 1947, which are now available for sale at Rs. 3/8/- per copy. The recommendations of the Madras Session were also published and circulated with a view to giving a wider publicity to the deliberations of the Conference. Some of these copies were sent to our provincial branches on the eve of Social Welfare Day and the rest were

sent to the Central and Provincial and State Government Departments. The Directory of Social Service Agencies and the Proceedings of the Madras Session have also been published now.

In connection with the printing and publication of papers, submitted annually by, the Conference, I am very happy to state that an understanding has been reached between the Director of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, and the Indian Conference of Social Work that papers submitted to Madras, and Bombay Session Conferences will be jointly published, the cost and number of copies published being shared equally after the publication. We have also decided that hence forward every year the June issue of the Indian Journal of Social Work be set apart for publishing the papers and other addresses etc. submitted to the previous sessions of the Conference. The cost for printing the usual number of copies will be borne by the Institute, while the Conference will bear the cost for printing the additional number of copies required by it. I am sure this new arrangement will prove very fruitful for the Institute and the Conference and I take this opportunity of expressing our gratitude to the Director of the Institute and the Bureau of Research and Publications for extending their generous co-operation and support to us. We are also planning the publication of a periodic bulletin. This project, too, is held in abeyance owing to limited staff at our Central Office. In the course of next year, however, we expect the Conference Secretariat will be so enlarged as to be able to discharge adequately all the responsibilities, particularly as it is a national organisation for the promotion of social welfare in India. We may also issue feature articles on subjects of social interest in newspapers and journals in India as an experimental measure. Recently, we released an article on "Huts and Housing" by Mr.

Jacob L. Crane of the Federal Housing and Home Finance Agency, Washington. We are convinced that by issuing regular news feature articles through the Indian Press we shall be able to focus public attention on our social needs and thus help to bring about a planned and social change through social action.

The Delhi Session.—In the light of the experience of the Bombay and Madras Sessions of the Indian Conference of Social Work, we were obliged to try new experiments in planning and organising the Annual Conference so as to make it instructive and interesting, as well as, useful and educative. One of the main complaints about the last two sessions was that we had numerous papers in each of the Sections, all meeting simultaneously and many participants were unable to cope with more than one topic at a time. As such, as an experimental measure, we have reduced the number of papers in each section and instead, have requested specially prepared memoranda from persons who are well conversant with the various subjects. How far this new experiment will prove successful remains to be seen. Then again, only two sections will meet at a time thus affording opportunities for larger participation. An interesting feature of our programme for the current session is the Symposium on "Social Work Abroad" which we invited through Embassies in India of the following countries:—the U. S. A., Czechoslovakia, the U. K., Australia, Sweden, Switzerland and Norway, besides a paper on "Social Welfare Advisory services of the United Nations." Through the Symposium, who hope to depict the field and scope of Social Services in the participating countries with special reference to a field which has developed best in the particular country. This Symposium, we are sure, will help us to clarify our own ideas about the scope, extent, and contents of Social Services in various countries. This will help evalua-

tion of the trends in our own country in the light of experience gained by other pioneering and progressive countries.

It is needless to stress, that the quest for social well being and ushering in of a planned social order is the essential prerequisite of a progressive Government. In view of the success which has been achieved by various countries in meeting the basic needs of the average citizen, the symposium will, I hope open a new chapter in Social Services in our own country and result in progressive realization of the fact that Social Welfare is the corner stone not only of Democracy but of any good government. While planning the Symposium of Social Work Abroad, we could not resist the temptation of satisfying our visual sense in trying to evaluate the achievements of foreign countries in the field. Therefore, we have organized an Exhibition of Social Work Abroad and we propose to depict through visual aids the growth, development and present content of Social Work and results of social experiments and welfare projects. If social service in India is to secure a professional and scientific status, it is essential that we have a proper understanding of the work done by various Governments, foreign social work organizations, and other voluntary organizations.

While the problems of human welfare are common all over the world, the problems of poverty, ignorance, illhealth, idleness and prolificness are common to most of the Asian Countries. For the present Session therefore, we sought the co-operation of our neighbouring countries in understanding our common problems. It was our desire ultimately, to hold an Asian Regional Conference of Social work in 1951, or thereabouts, and for this reason we have invited Fraternal Observers from the following Asian Countries and the following agencies:

Afghanistan, Australia, Burma, Ceylon, China, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Korea,

Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Phillipines, Siam, Soviet Russia, Syria, Turkey, Indonesia, Malaya, Palestine and

. United Nations, UNESCO, WHO, UNICEF, ILO, International Conference of Social Work, National Council of Social Service, London, and National Conference of Social Work, United States.

Now that the holding of the International Conference of Social Work in India in 1952 is an accomplished fact, I do not know whether it will be necessary to plan the regional Conference at this stage. However, it is an idea well worth pursuing even after the session of the International Conference of Social Work in India.

Miscellaneous.—As has been already stated, the Indian Conference of Social Work does not undertake direct services, but it is an organization to stimulate interest in the field of Social Work and promote new experiments by giving help and guidance where called upon to do so. With the help of the Central Office, the Acting Honorary General Secretary and the Executive Secretary have undertaken to sponsor the Family Welfare Agency, which is in the process of formation. This agency will be established as the first family case work agency in India, and will endeavour to solve problems arising out of family situations in the City of Bombay. Case work as a technique in Social work has not yet been fully tried in India except in the hospital setting. Thus, the opening of the Family Welfare Agency is a new development in the field of social services in India.

Library.—In compliance with the resolution of the Central Executive Committee, a small Library is being set up at the Central Office, and to-day we have a few books and current literature in the field of Social Work besides numerous pamphlets and publications sent by social welfare agencies in foreign countries. In course of time we are hoping that the library will grow in usefulness

through service and will become the forte of all social workers desiring to keep pace with the current literature in the field. At present we do not issue books out of this library but we have sent useful publications to our various members outside the city for specific purposes.

Looking Ahead.—We are happy to state that, within an exceedingly short period of two years, the Indian Conference of Social Work has already established itself on a somewhat sound footing. If we have to maintain the reputation we have already gained and if we mean to enhance it still further, the urgent necessity of a strong network of *Provincial and District Branches* of the Conference throughout India is all too obvious. Whenever possible, we have appointed convenors, established regional branches and are following them up energetically. Further, it cannot be gainsaid that in many of the provinces, the structure of social services, prevailing at present, is rather inadequate to support and sustain a provincial branch of the Indian Conference of Social Work. In spite of all these difficulties the idea of organization and technique of scientific social work is slowly but steadily gaining ground in the realm of our social services, which so far have been either of a religious or political complexion. With the advent of freedom, welfare of the people has received considerable interest and encouragement from the present Government, yet we cannot claim to be near enough to a complete welfare state. We are aware that a vast country like ours needs thousands of social workers with ranging degrees and qualifications, yet opportunities for training in social work are too few, and opportunities for specialization remarkably poor. While we are aware of 3 or 4 post-graduate institutions for the training of social workers, it is disappointing to note that Universities have not yet realized the need of including education for professional

social work in their curriculum. Then again, facilities for in-service training, which are of primary importance have hitherto been utterly neglected. In this connection, many large institutions, like the Indian Red Cross Society, the Harijan Sewak Sangh and the like, could very well start training for workers already in service. It is also possible for the existing schools of social work to offer suitable opportunities and scope to those already working in the field of social service, to better equip themselves by securing training to enable themselves to keep abreast of the latest trends in current social work. The need for a large, well-trained personnel in social work can only be made by increasing the number of schools of social work so that each province or a linguistic zone could have one which could develop techniques and types of social work peculiarly suited to the needs of that particular region.

I may, however, strike a note of warning that in our desire to create new schools of social work, we should not do so at the cost of the existing high standard as prevails at the present day in institutions like the Tata Institute of Social Sciences. Besides, for the uniform development of schools throughout India, it is necessary that a committee for standardization of courses on the conference level should be set up immediately.

Then again, social research in India is still in its infant stages. If we desire, as we certainly do, to adequately meet the social conditions in our country it is imperative that we have an exact knowledge of the existing conditions and to plan scientifically on that factual basis with a view to reaching our goal as early as possible from time to time. We must further take stock of the progress of social experiments that are being carried out in India to-day. It is therefore needless to say that the work of the social research council is of vital importance, and

we hope that the committee when it does meet, should consider the questions of clarifying and widening its membership in such a manner as to represent Universities, Governments and other allied organizations which are likely to be interested.

I have already stated that the Indian Conference of Social Work has made steady progress towards the stimulation of interest in the field of social work. The tremendous amount of good-will and desire for service is not, however, sufficient to bring about social welfare. All progressive countries to-day are shifting the focus of governance from mere law and order to the progressive well-being and welfare of the people. A Ministry or a Department of Social Welfare exists in certain advanced countries as well as in some backward countries, in the former from the recognition of the importance of social welfare in the life of the nation and in the latter from the vast social problems before them and from the recognition of the backwardness of the people and the necessity of intensified governmental efforts to bring them up socially, culturally, and economically. The main resolution at the First All India Conference of Social Work related to this demand. Subsequently, in the second Annual Session similar sentiments were expressed and then again on the occasion of the Social Welfare day, a resolution demanding the establishment of a Ministry or at least a Department of Public Welfare was passed. It is indeed distressing to note that owing to the present economic crisis, the opening up of a Ministry of Social Welfare may be delayed still further. I, however, hope that the Government at the Centre and in the provinces will consider the consolidation of existing welfare activities of the Government under a separate Department of Public Welfare, which may be manned by trained and technically qualified persons."

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK, BOMBAY

RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS ACCOUNT FROM 1ST FEBRUARY 1948 TO 31ST DECEMBER 1948.

RECEIPTS				PAYMENTS			
TO MEMBERSHIP FEES.				BY OFFICE EQUIPMENT	..	2,425	15 0
Patrons	..	3,000	0 0	BY DIRECTORY ADVANCE	..	500	0 0
Institutional	..	1,150	0 0	BY EXPENSES			
Affiliation	..	170	0 0	Salaries	..	3,213	15 0
Ordinary	..	445	0 0	Advertisement	..	15	11 0
Delegates	..	2,005	0 0	Bank charges	..	8	12 6
Observers	..	510	0 0	Conveyance and Travelling	..	1,673	10 0
				Cartage and Cooly	..	99	7 0
				Hire charges	..	6	0 0
TO GRANTS				Honorarium and Food Ex-			
Bombay Government	..	3,000	0 0	penses	..	323	0 0
Central Government	..	5,000	0 0	Printing and Stationery	..	4,551	2 0
				Sundry charges	..	173	12 0
TO DONATIONS	..			Stamps, Telegrams	..	640	2 9
TO LOAN ALL INDIA CON-				Typing Charges	..	83	0 0
FERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK				Telephone Trunk call charges..		84	10 0
A/C	..			BY MADRAS CONFERENCE A/C.			
TO INTEREST ON CURRENT				Cash Balance with Mr. Chatterji			
A/C	..			BY CLOSING BALANCES			
TO MISCELLANEOUS RECEIPTS				Cash in hand	..	1	9 9
				Cash in Central Bank A/c.	..	8,372	1 6
Total Rs.	..			Total Rs.	..		
		22,289	14 9			22,289	14 9

NOTE.—Outstanding expenses, including audit Honorarium Rs. 100/- have not been taken into consideration in the preparation of the above account. Similarly no account has been taken of income accrued but not received.

Examined and found correct as per Books of Accounts rendered.
BOMBAY, P. C. HANSOTIA & CO.
26th September, 1949 Chartered Accountants
Auditors.

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK, BOMBAY

RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS ACCOUNT FROM 1ST JANUARY 1949 TO 30TH NOVEMBER 1949.

RECEIPTS				PAYMENTS		
To Opening Balance	1	9	9	By Office Equipment	..	1,401 8 0
Cash in hand	" Directory Advance	..	500 0 0
Cash in Central Bank	8,614	9	6	" Exhibition of Social Work	..	500 0 0
To Madras Conference A/c	" Library	..	534 11 0
Balance	" Suspense A/c.	..	5 0 0
To Membership Fees.	EXPENSES.		
Institutional	Salaries	..	6,464 3 8
Ordinary	Advertisement	..	20 3 0
Delegates	Bank Charges	..	12 2 0
Observers	Conveyance & Travelling	..	980 15 6
Affiliation	Cartage & Gooly	..	6 4 0
To Grants.	Hire Charges	..	97 0 0
Central Government	Honorarium	..	400 0 0
Govt. of Bombay	Printing and Stationery	..	3,535 4 3
Govt. of Mysore	Sundry charges	..	164 4 0
To Donations	Stamps & Telegrams	..	866 6 0
To Surplus of Cash Balance Transferred from A/c. of All India Conference of Social Work	Typing charges	..	385 0 0
To Suspense A/c.	Rent	..	480 0 0
To Interest on Current A/c.	Renewal Fees	..	20 0 0
Total Rs.	CLOSING BALANCE		
				Cash in hand	..	98 12 3
				Cash in Central Bank	..	17,197 14 10
				Total Rs.	..	33,669 8 6

NOTE.—Income accrued but not received.

Rs. 1,000/- a non-recurring grant from Government of United Provinces as per their letter No. A. 2723/XV12050-48 dated 24th July 1949.

Rs. 1,000/- a non-recurring grant from Government of Bihar as per their letter No. 16306/LSG/Misc. IC122/49 dated 25th October 1949.

Mrs. ZARINA E. G. CURRIMBOY
Mr. F. R. SURTI

BOMBAY

13th December, 1949.

Honorary Treasurer.

PRESIDENTIAL ADDRESS

HON'BLE DR. JIVRAJ N. MEHTA

Friends.—At the outset allow me to express my heartfelt thanks at the great honour you have conferred on me by asking me to preside over the deliberations of this conference. It is indeed a great privilege for me to have this opportunity of participating in the work of a session which, I hope, will help to formulate in a clear form, in the light of the experience of the last three years, the lines on which organized social effort should assist in the development of our national programme for the improvement of the health and welfare of the people. In this connection I am sure all of us are looking forward eagerly to the Symposium and the Exhibition on social work abroad which will present, for our edification, the social services that governmental and voluntary agencies have organized in some of the most advanced countries of the world and will thus help to stimulate, it is to be hoped, the growth of similar effort in a wide variety of fields in our own country. Likewise the contact with all the fraternal observers assembled here will, I hope, stimulate us "to fresh fields and pastures new". The wealth of material, that will be presented for our benefit by our guests from abroad, will require an acute sense of discrimination for there will be much that we can incorporate with advantage in our endeavour, and much that we may not be able to accept on account of the special conditions prevailing in this country.

Importance of Social Work.—In addressing an audience such as this, which includes workers in all the major spheres of social welfare activity, it is hardly necessary for me to emphasize the importance of the role that social work should play in India today. We are in the formative years of a national programme of reconstruction

and the leeway that we have to make up for advancing to those social standards which are accepted as minima by all progressive countries in respect of education, health services and the general level of living conditions for the people is so great that the ensuing years should see a supreme effort on the part of governments and of the people alike if we are to succeed in securing for ourselves those standards of health and well-being which other nations have attained. If we fail to do so, what is likely to be the consequence? Though we have at present a stable Government in the country, this stability is based on insecure foundations so long as poverty, disease and human suffering continue to blow the smouldering embers of discontent in the community into flame. Food, clothing and shelter are elementary human needs which remain unfulfilled in the case of large numbers of our countrymen and, so long as this state of affairs continues, the development and maintenance of an atmosphere conducive to peace and co-operative effort become increasingly jeopardised. Considerations such as these must bring home to us the supreme importance of educating ourselves and our countrymen to turn to social work as the panacea for many of the ills in our individual as well as community life. I have had the privilege of associating myself with social work for the past quarter of a century in the medical field and I therefore speak with all the conviction of past experience that nothing helps so much to lighten one's own burdens in life as devotion to tasks which promote the amelioration of suffering and sorrow for others.

The Goal of Social Work.—Our first aim today must be to try and clear away mists which surround the frequently used

and often abused terms "Social Work" and "Social Welfare". Social services may best be described as those, which grouped together in a concerted policy are concerned with attacking and conquering five giant Evils: (1) physical WANT with which they are directly concerned; (2) DISEASE which causes want and brings many troubles in its train; (3) IGNORANCE which no democracy can afford among its citizens; (4) SQUALOR which arises mainly through haphazard distribution of industry and population, and (5) IDLENESS which destroys wealth and corrupts men, whether they are well-fed or not, when they are idle. To repeat, we must wage incessant war against the five monsters of want, disease, ignorance, squalor and unemployment.

Social work in India.—Social work in India has existed in one form or another since ages, and this very fact makes the organization of scientific social work in our changing society extremely difficult. Further, the complex nature of our Indian Communities, and especially the Hindu Community, coupled with the vastness of our Problems, renders the situation still more intricate. The village panchayats, the institution of the joint-family system, the various caste, community, religious and secular organizations, endowments, charity organizations, private, public or Municipal agencies—all these, at one time or the other, attempted to tackle some of the gigantic problems of our society. Some of these methods do not fit well in the present conditions of our society, and hence the necessity of giving a new form to them.

The British, following their new pattern, approached the problem of social service in India through patronage and direction of voluntary efforts of the middle and upper classes, which in several cases did not amount to anything more than tinkering with social problems. On the other hand, the Nation-

alist movement, though political in its ideology, under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi had never divorced social work from politics. Organizations, created during the period 1921-47, are very vast in their scope and resources and have more or less touched every aspect of human life, not leaving beyond its pale special and difficult problems of the socially handicapped groups like the Industrial workers, the Harijans and the Adivasis. But since these were linked to a political movement, their achievements in the field of social welfare were necessarily limited.

With the advent of freedom, one of the basic obstacles has been removed. We have now set up our goal which is no longer political freedom but the growth of human personality to its fullest stature. Our Government has taken many bold and far-reaching steps entailing immense financial expenditure to make the environment productive by industrial development and to organize our vast resources with a view to feeding, clothing and housing the people. Of course, it is evident to everyone that improvement in the physical environment is futile unless it is accompanied by a corresponding improvement in the human personality—in the physical fitness and vitality of the individual, his health and intelligence, his character and sense of social responsibility.

The Indian Conference of Social Work.—Thus it was that the need was felt for creating a strong central body which could effectively grapple with the problems inherent in our present-day social structure. In 1947, at a time when the country was passing through a tremendous socio-economic upheaval and we were faced with a human exodus from long-established homelands on an unprecedented scale in the history of Man, the Indian Conference of Social Work was conceived and brought into being. The

Conference is barely two years old and is still in its infant stages. And yet within this short time, in keeping with the aims and objects laid down in its Constitution, it has opened up several active Provincial and State branches; serves as a clearing-house of information, not only nationally but internationally; has prepared a directory of social services, as a first step in the co-ordination of social work; holds successful annual conferences; appoints or deposes its representatives on national and international conferences; publishes literature; promotes the training of social workers, both within and without the country; and attempts to guide the progress of social work in India on scientific lines. Though much has been achieved in this direction, there is no room for complacency, for much remains to be done. For our work to be effective it is however necessary that the Indian Conference of Social Work should set up an effective Research Division. But unless funds and adequate trained staff are available no such work is possible. It would, therefore, behove us to launch a finance campaign throughout India to build up effective local units to shape and co-ordinate social welfare activities in India.

Planning Social Welfare.—When we consider the planning of social welfare, it is impossible to overlook its philosophical background. Social Workers, immersed in practical affairs and human problems of all kinds, feel the need of a guiding star to which to hitch their wagons, more so today than ever before, when human life is at a discount and human values in the melting pot. If new plans and programmes are to be undertaken they will require a complete overhaul of the old outlook, and social service will have to follow the trend of world forces. The old concept of charity, philanthropy and patronage will have to give way to the new concept of social responsi-

lities and duties, where all social service is undertaken on the basis of mutual aid, realizing that it is the duty of all to stand by one another in the interest of national wealth and welfare. There is place no longer for the leisured classes trying to dabble in social work as a means of salving their conscience. No longer holds good the crude idea of patronage and personal pleasure of giving alms or doles, the right of the donor to give and the obligation of the derelict to receive. Hence, full-time well paid workers are needed to effectively plan and carry out welfare programmes. Social work must be recognised as one of the most important professions and must be well-paid, so that it will attract the best brains in its fold. This does not however, mean that Voluntary workers are outmoded. Far from it! We do need an army of honorary workers, for India as yet cannot afford to pay all her social workers. But I wish to reiterate that the paid workers must become the sound foundation on which the whole structure of social welfare is erected.

The role of I. C. S. W.—The task before the Indian Conference of Social Work today is to correlate and analyse the achievements so far, to bring together for thinking out and planning anew such comprehensive programmes that problems will not be dealt with piecemeal and social service will not cater to a few and scattered groups of the Indian humanity. The Indian Conference of Social Work must squarely face the problems of the individual, the child, the mother, the working adult, his family and the community. The numbers that are to be dealt with are staggering and, therefore, it requires effective and trained leadership, efficient organization and vast resources to so equip the individual that he can make the best of his environment. The rapid growth of our towns and cities is creating many social problems that need systematic

handling, if dissatisfaction and discontent are to be prevented. We cannot afford to allow the urban areas to grow helter skelter and then wake up to provide welfare services after social problems have become unwieldy. Likewise it is necessary that the people of the villages, who are not as vocal or articulate as those of the cities, are not neglected as they have been for so many decades.

The Refugee Problem.—The Refugee Problem, involving a populace of almost six million souls, has so widened the field and scope of social service that no country in the history of the world has ever been challenged with such a stupendous task of rehabilitation, of a number so vast, so totally uprooted and so utterly resourceless. It is futile to deny that the problem is complex and difficult and that with all the resources and good-will, little can be done, unless there is active co-operation between the Central, Provincial, State and Municipal Governments on the one hand, the private agencies on the other, and the refugees themselves on the third.

The Refugee Problem is not only a problem of economy or rehabilitation (both urban and rural), but is a colossal social problem involving gradual assimilation with community-living in different physical environments with different languages, customs, manners, behaviour and social set-up. It is desirable that a special leadership is created to deal with the problem by planning special welfare programmes for closely-woven communities. Whilst the efforts of the Government to give employment, by providing land, loans, cottage industries of the Japanese type, and to set up separate townships, are laudable, an intensive effort of the social worker alone can prevent these from developing into separate social islands, on the basis of their old structure, with a pattern

different from the one prevailing in the province where these townships are situated. This should be avoided to prevent new conflicts arising.

Child Welfare.—India is fairly conscious of the need for CHILD WELFARE; already the organization of the Kasturba Trust and all existing organizations for infant and child welfare provide a nucleus for an efficient nation-wide child-welfare programme. The first step in this direction can be achieved by the creation of a National Children's Bureau at Delhi in which educationists, psychologists, sociologists and social workers can work together to map out a plan and programme for Child Welfare under the Health Ministry. The situation, so far as the children's problems are concerned, has probably worsened with the increasing problems of food-supply and made complex by the refugee problem. Supply of milk and vital necessities of life yet remain to be attended to; the hard and difficult problem of feeding school children will require tremendous financial resources. A beginning, though in a very humble way, has already been made with the establishment of day nurseries at various places. All municipalities must be encouraged to provide this important medium of child development and care under proper supervision and with adequate resources. At present, India must find very simple and elementary methods not requiring great resources and trained personnel. The child merely needs the right environment of physical growth and mental development in the early years. It requires affectionate care and opportunities for play and an immediate attention to its physical needs. The Children's Bureau should be able to prepare a systematic programme for municipal and private agencies with provincial financial aid wherever possible. In case it is not possible, under the present financial duress, for the Government of India

to set up this Bureau immediately, it should be sponsored as a voluntary venture.

Child Welfare is such an important area of social welfare that it merits national attention in the immediate future. The services in this area, however, should be directed particularly toward the protection and care of neglected and dependent children, and should include all measures to be taken by public or private authorities. In short, we must try to secure for every child his right to a secure home, and to provide adequate physical care and services to meet his emotional and spiritual needs. We must acknowledge that in this country today, we do not provide 90% of our children with these essentials. Besides we cannot even claim that we offer equal opportunities or protection to all children. If we are to strive towards unity and equality of opportunity, there is need to establish some means whereby a minimum standard of service can be given to all children regardless of the place where they happen to live. We also require greater uniformity of legal provision to safeguard child life across the country; both new and improved services for children are needed if we expect to have a new generation capable of meeting the tremendous challenge of the future. In order to promote these objectives, we believe that there is an urgent need for a National Children's Bureau. When established, the Provincial and State Governments will find it, a logical source of technical advice, assistance and reliable information in building up their child welfare services and projects. The needs of children in such fields as health, education and social services can be properly ascertained by surveys and research projects. As a result of such studies can be laid down minimum standards of care and protection of every Indian child, including the provision of adequate food, clothing, shelter, education, recreation and

emotional satisfactions to meet its basic needs.

Health services.—It is only recently that India has become conscious of the lack of proper and adequate *medical care and curative services*. Though this work can best be done by the Ministry of Health, the history of progressive movements everywhere makes it abundantly clear that innovations have generally been promoted by voluntary agencies rather than by governments and that, by establishing the value of the programmes they advocate, they have helped an enlightened public opinion to support governments in accepting schemes of proved value and in expanding them on a nationwide scale. In Great Britain the maternity and child welfare movement, with its present extensive ramifications into numerous beneficent channels, owed its origin and early development to voluntary effort. Other examples can also be quoted. In our own country, health activities in respect of leprosy and tuberculosis as well as maternity and child welfare work owed their beginnings to the energy and enthusiasm of a few devoted individuals and, be it said to their credit, many of them were enlightened British men and women. Even now voluntary agencies, largely Indian, continue to make valuable contributions to these spheres of health activity. It is only more recently that governments and local bodies have begun to take an increasingly larger share of responsibility for such work.

There is yet another field where voluntary effort can play an even more important part than that which governments can be expected to do. I mean health education of the people. I used here health education in a wide sense so as to include not only sound instruction in the hygienic mode of life but also the attempt to stimulate the interest of the individual and of the community for active participation in the health

programme so that local effort may be mobilised to the utmost possible extent in the execution of the programme.

Physical fitness programme.—As social workers, we are also concerned with the problems of *Physical Fitness* so that the individual's health can be looked after properly. In the west, this is known as the Physical Fitness Programme. The Central and Provincial Governments can develop a Ministry of Public Welfare, and then a Division of Physical Fitness may be instituted under this Ministry, which should prepare and execute programme of physical fitness for youths, workers and other adults. A good deal of health education requires to be propagated, particularly in the rural areas, by using the cinema, the radio, lectures and publications in the provincial languages. The success of such a programme together with adequate and well looked after housing will not only reduce the cost of medical aid, hospitals and the like, but will give dividends in terms of better activity of individuals and an increase of national wealth. We need to start periodical demonstrations and festivals of physical well-being and develop standards of athletics and give opportunities for open-air life to millions of people in the cities. In developing the programme voluntary agencies will have to work in close association with public health authorities who are primarily responsible for the health of the people.

Environmental hygiene.—Environmental hygiene is one of the most important among the health problems of towns and the countryside. It is true that large scale developments such as the provision of protected water supply and drainage, town or village planning and housing can be undertaken only under the auspices of the State and as a long-term measure in view of the financial investment that is involved. But it is not generally recognised that much can

be done to improve the village site or the residential environment of the town if people can only be taught to observe certain simple rules of conduct in regard to the disposal of their domestic and human waste products and if local effort in the way of labour can be mobilised for a few days every six months in order to deal with such matters as removal of rank vegetation, cleansing of tanks, wells and water courses of objectional vegetable growths which promote mosquito breeding, and other similar measures for creating a healthy environment for community life. The health or sanitary inspector should be so trained as to assist and guide the village people in all such matters. He should have sufficient initiative to utilise local material and local talent, as far as possible, in order to carry out the necessary reforms speedily, efficiently and at minimum cost to the people.

Youth welfare.—It is unfortunate that the dawn of freedom in the country has not brought into existence a *youth movement* inspired and energized by great ideals. It is essential that the nation should be built on a sound foundation. Youths at present, do not have any programme of action and service contributing not only to the development of their own personality and character as citizens, but also aiding Social Welfare in all its branches. It is regrettable that Youths should still fritter away their energies in differences of political ideologies, instead of providing a united front against poverty, ignorance and disease. Fostering right patriotism will mean channelization of youthful activities on constructive lines, helping in social education projects, organization of play-grounds, building up the Scout and Girl-guide movements on a bigger and sounder basis than that existing today, and developing the right outlook by establishing a sound knowledge of national problems in community centres, debating unions, study circles and dramatics. I would

also like you all to consider the pros and cons of compulsory social service by provincial Governments, municipalities and private agencies. The present attempt to form a National Union of Students under the Presidentship of Dr. Zakir Hussain, will, I am sure, go a long way in creating a purely non-partisan students' body guiding and directing the work of students in nation-building activities.

Community Organisation.—In the field of community welfare work, an intensive programme of social contact with the masses has already been established through labour welfare programmes in cities and *ashrams* in rural areas. The early pioneering programme was launched at a time when the working conditions had to be improved and political consciousness brought to the masses. With the advent of freedom, the situation is no longer the same. Today, the human being has to be appreciated and activated in the service of the nation. In a vast country like India, methods of slow work and individualistic approach, however efficient they may be, are not practicable for the moment. It is, therefore, essential to approach the entire community, including adults, youths and children of both the sexes, with a dynamic community programme on a regional basis. This mass approach is the only possible way to raise the standard of life and the general cultural level of the masses and thus forming the group behaviour in line with our national ideals. The first part of this *community organization programme* will consist of a frontal attack on the problem of physical environment, including housing and sanitation. The second part will deal with physical fitness, health and community recreation of both the out-door and indoor varieties. The third aspect will be a widespread programme of social education including literacy and education for health,

recreation and culture. The fourth approach of the community programme will include an intensive development drive for women and children. And finally, the economic life of the community must be dealt with through the planned organization of co-operatives, including consumers' co-operative credit societies as well as producers' co-operatives on a small scale, wherever possible.

The need for stressing a *rural outlook* and the spirit of service as essential parts of the course cannot be over-emphasised. Apart from the fact that the number of social workers in all categories have been small relative to the needs of the country, the few that are available have been unwilling in the past to live in villages and work among the rural population. It is therefore important that the trainees should, from the beginning be made aware of their being required for rural work, and familiar with the rural setting and the requirements of our villages and thus duly prepared for their willing acceptance of the conditions of life in rural areas. While deciding the objects of the Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust, Gandhiji had therefore laid down that assistance from this Trust should be made available to women and children living in villages with a population not exceeding 2000 persons. This was a very wise restriction as it emphasised the necessity of seeking workers from amongst the residents of villages or from amongst those living in towns who were willing to settle down and work in the villages. This restriction is naturally responsible for the slow development of the activities under that Trust. Happily the idea of work among the village communities is now taking root and an increasing number of trainees is now attracted to camps set up in the rural areas for the necessary training.

If our work is to bear fruit a desire

must be created within the people of the villages themselves for social and environmental improvement. This can be done only through the instrumentality of village teachers, village midwives and village social workers who must all be trained in these camps in the fundamentals of social work and asked to co-operate in their programme of activities. Such instruction in the theory and practice of welfare is also necessary to be imparted to those medical practitioners who may be attending to village medical work even though periodically. Such instruction in the fundamentals of welfare work and knowledge of social problems should be also imparted to nurses, midwives and teachers working in urban areas if work in this direction is to progress.

Need for a ministry of public welfare.—Now that social services are developing in India to an appreciable extent, a complete investigation into the problem of organised agencies and their programmes should be undertaken under some central authority. This may best be done under a *ministry of public welfare*. But as the creation of such a new ministry would be faced with many difficulties, a redistribution of functions of the Ministries of Health, Labour and Education may be suitably brought about by creating a Department of Public Welfare under the Ministry of Health, allotting to it such subjects as juvenile delinquency, physical fitness, family, child and youth welfare, rehabilitation of refugees, industrial welfare, hospital social service, psychiatric social work, social legislation, insurance or social security, public assistance, community development etc. Another alternative may be to allow the Ministry for Rehabilitation of Displaced persons to evolve into such a Ministry of Public Welfare. If the proposed Ministry of Department of Public Welfare actually materializes, a special division for the purpose of research and the training

of workers in all fields of social work would necessarily form a part of it.

Council of Social Agencies.—It is a fashion these days to expect the Government alone to shoulder the burden of reconstruction and rehabilitation. The slogan of the "Welfare State" has added emphasis to this exaggerated concept of state responsibility. It must be stated that however sincere the Government at the Centre and in the Provinces may be, however inclined they may be to put all the available resources at the disposal of the social worker, the vast problems that confront us cannot be dealt with effectively unless proper and powerful agencies are created. What is called for is co-ordination of effort between the public and private agencies and the municipal and provincial government agencies. A proper definition and distribution of the municipal, provincial and central government activities, so far as social services are concerned, are also necessary. Governments alone cannot tackle such gigantic problems unaided by the people. Powerful agencies, both public and private, must be created to bear the brunt of social welfare. In this connection, I would like to stress the amazing importance and growing usefulness of *councils of social agencies*. The purpose of such councils is to bring about improvement in the quality and adequacy of the social and health services of the community and better to relate these services to the community's needs. Such a council of different social agencies in the various towns and cities of each province can have a well-organized annual drive for the collection of money. In U. S. A. the money thus collected goes to the *community chest*—people of every section of the society contribute their very best to the chest, as the financial drive is only undertaken once a year and heralded by tremendous publicity and propaganda. The money

thus collected can then be allotted for the coming year to the different agencies belonging to the Council, according to their needs and the effectiveness of their programmes. The Council of Social Agencies is theoretically a programme planning body, providing a complement to the financial purpose of the Community Chest. The Council can, in the main, form four kinds of activities:

(i) It can provide a medium for educational activities embracing its own constituency and the general Public.

(ii) It can endeavour to seek direct action from the authorities controlling a particular operating unit or group of units in order to make changes deemed desirable.

(iii) It can itself administer certain kinds of services.

(vi) It can co-ordinate the services of two or more agencies towards the more effective production of a joint result.

Importance of Voluntary Action.—Social advance in any form involves action not by the state alone but by the individual as well. The term "Voluntary Action" means any private action undertaken independently of public or state control. Lord Beveridge contends that the vigour and abundance of voluntary action outside the citizen's house, both individually and in association with others, for bettering his own and his fellows' lives, are the distinguishing marks of a truly free society. A generation ago, the term "voluntary" was normally used to denote "unpaid". A "Voluntary worker" was someone who gave unpaid service to a good cause, and the group formed for this purpose became known as a "Voluntary Organization". In recent years, however, a significant shift of meaning here has taken place. A Voluntary organization today is one which, whether its workers are paid or unpaid, is initiated

and governed by its own members without external control. The motives of Mutual Aid and Philanthropy are very important in voluntary action. Just as the State has its duty to discharge by its citizens, just as the community has its responsibility to look after and help its members by a Council of Social Agencies, in exactly the like manner, the individual has his duty by developing a social conscience and doing his bit of voluntary action, by himself or in conjunction with others. "Emphasis on duty rather than assertion of rights presents itself today as the condition through which alone humanity can resume the progress in civilization which has been interrupted by two world wars and remains halted by their consequences".

Co-ordination of Social Work.—In the interest of efficiency and economy, *co-ordination of social work* is of paramount importance. There is no gainsaying the fact that duplication of effort must be avoided at all cost! The Councils of Social Agencies, which I have already mentioned on local regional and national areas can go a long way in helping this extremely difficult task of co-ordination. There are many all-India bodies for the promotion of social welfare, like the Servants of India Society, the Indian Red Cross Society, Harijan Sevak Sangh, Bhil Sevak Mandal, Kasturba Gandhi Memorial Trust, All-India Spinners' Association, the All India Women's Conference, the United Council of Relief and Welfare and the all India Social Service Council etc. It is essential that all of these agencies meet and deliberate jointly for the purposes of co-ordination and chalk out a uniform programme.

Social Work Training.—From some of the problems which I have briefly touched upon in my address, all of you will realize that in the midst of our vast problems, our personnel to man all our varied Social Services is very inadequate indeed! According to

an estimate made by Dr. J. F. Bulsara some time back, India needs at least 6 lakhs of trained and qualified Social workers. As against this requirement, we have only about 15,000 social workers, out of which hardly a couple of hundred are properly trained. The Indian Conference of Social Work hopes to stimulate interest in social work education, and to ensure uniform standards in the development of social services in the country. There is, however, a suggestion afoot at the moment for different standards to be set up for Rural and Urban Social Workers, for obvious reasons. Besides, within five years, each provincial or State branch of the Indian Conference of Social Work should see to it that at least one post-graduate school of social work is established in its respective area. To supplement the emergency it may be suggested that some of the existing schools of social work should arrange their schedule in such a manner as to afford facilities to the untrained workers in the field to acquire the necessary training and professional skill. Extension facilities of schools of Social Work must be provided to meet the needs of different working Groups in the community and especially the following 3 categories:—

(i) Those who wish to supplement by social study and experience their training for other professions.

(ii) "Education for the educated"—Those engaged in social work of some kind who wish extended knowledge from time to time—in short, refresher courses or in-service training.

(iii) The ordinary public-spirited citizen, whose social consciousness needs systematic guidance as part of his citizenship.

The difficulty in securing the necessary staff for opening new schools of social work must be got over by help from the United Nations or the Government of India. The Ministry of Education should reserve an

adequate number of scholarships for students specializing in social work teaching, and the provincial Governments should subsidize post-graduate institutions for training social workers.

The University, to my mind, is the right centre for the training of social workers with degree or diploma courses. The University has been aptly described as the workshop of democracy; hence the schools of social work should, as far as possible, be attached to it. Social Work is no longer the preserve of the middle-aged well-to-do spinster and the retired civil servant or business man. Its boundaries have extended, its standards are higher and more exacting. And I feel that no institution is better equipped for this type of teaching than the University.

There are many who still have little conception of what social work means or why social workers should be trained. In view of the mist of obscurity which hangs over the subject, they can hardly be blamed. We, in this country, have been bred in a tradition of philanthropy and social service. Twenty years ago we were told that a missionary spirit of devotion and self-sacrifice was the essential qualification. Today, the idiom has changed. The social worker, like the doctor, teacher, artist or craftsman, is born not made, and inborn qualities of aptitude, character and personality make-up rank very high. But not less than in medicine, education or art, must natural gifts be reinforced by knowledge, understanding and practice. "Serious, thoughtful and organized effort must be made to tackle social ills not only as a part of personal religion, but as a social obligation; not merely as an expression of sympathy but as a recognition of difficulties urgently presenting themselves to be solved, and demanding for their solution gifts of the head as well as of the heart".

Destination Sarvodaya.—In conclusion, I have tried to give you a very comprehensive picture of what is required in the way of social work in the country. In trying to help our fellow-beings we must be conscious of the ultimate objective towards which we are all striving consciously or unconsciously

and that is to make life secure and happy for all—Sarvodaya—the well-being of all as Gandhiji would put it. Let us pray and hope that the Indian Conference of Social Work will be instrumental in accelerating our pace towards this cherished goal.

STATE AND SOCIAL SERVICES

HON'BLE SHRI V. L. MEHTA

State and Social Services, Rural Reconstruction and Welfare and Welfare of Tribal people constitute a wide range of topics bearing on some of the most vital aspects of the life of the Indian nation. The state as a "Social Service" or a "Welfare" State has no meaning or value unless its activities impinge on and influence for the good the whole gamut of the lives of the large bulk of the Indian population, majority of whom dwell in the countryside and very large numbers of whom have their abode in the hills and forests in which India abounds. At a juncture in India's history when a democratic republic based on justice, liberty, fraternity and equality is established it is but appropriate that social workers should view their future tasks in terms of the social welfare of the neglected and the depressed, residing in the most distant corners of rural and sylvan India.

The State and Social Service.—The new constitution of India lays down certain directive principles of state policy which will regulate the conduct of the affairs of the future governments of the country. The fundamental aim of promoting the welfare of the people is to be achieved by securing and protecting, as effectively as it may, a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall reform all the institutions of national life. Towards this end it will be the duty of the state to ensure that the citizens, men and women, equally have the

right to an adequate means of livelihood.

With an economic system so organised as to conform to the tests and conditions that the constitution prescribes, the tasks of the state will be facilitated in safeguarding the strength and health of the workers in securing orderly conditions of employment, in providing protection against unemployment, old-age, sickness, disablement and other cases of undeserved want, in prescribing a living wage and in enforcing minimum terms of remuneration for all categories of workers. This is a task that has occupied social reformers in the west, decades of struggle and hard labour. In Great Britain this conception of the enlarged role of the state is barely half a century old.

The term social service came to have attached to it a new significance. These services began to be distinguished from the increasing provision for social security which was undertaken by the state by its gradually assuming wider responsibility for the welfare of its people. In any examination of the subject under discussion this three fold aspect must not be over-looked. The first is the need for the gradual building up through legislative and administrative action of conditions of social security for the people, ensuring on the one hand the right to work and on the other hand what is not adequately recognised—the withdrawal of the means of livelihood from those who will not work. The scope for measures

of social security is ever widening because society cannot remain static. How the scope widens can be seen from the history of labour legislation or agrarian reform even in India. Measures like the Factories Act (1911), Workmen's Compensation Act, the Industrial Disputes Act, the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, the Minimum Wages Act and Employees State Insurance Act and the administrative action that accompanies them have served to create a new environment for industrial labour, from which as the starting point conditions of social security can be extended by the state in Republican India. That policy affects, however, only one section and that not the most numerous one of the community. For the coal miners and tea plantation workers, workers on railways, seamen and dock workers similar legislation has been enacted some of which are more comprehensive in their scope. The Shops and the Establishment Act of Bombay is intended to protect the interests of yet another section of the population especially in our expanding towns and cities.

It is only the minimum of certain essential requisites that the state can guarantee or itself provide. That cannot, however, include within its purview all sections of the community, much less can it cover the entire *jamat* of the requirements of all these individuals whom in the free India of the future we wish to assist in growing into active intelligent citizens. Hence comes the recognition of the role of the state in organising and providing social services.

These are certain activities in the field of effort not covered by the term social security which pertain rightly to the state and for which the state has to assume responsibility, partially if not fully—responsibility it should discharge as the means at its disposal permit. A modicum of edu-

cation is the first among these requirements, to be followed by attention to sanitation and hygiene and by the suppression of ill-health and disease. Ignorance, squalor, disease; these are the giants of Sir William Beveridge's fantasy to be conquered before there is perfect security for all.

Beyond this there are various spheres of social life in which organised effort and relief are needed. In India as in other progressive countries, social service in these spheres is rendered either by the state or by the private agency. Are there any essential characteristics which should distinguish public from voluntary social services? Voluntary societies frequently embody minority opinion and the workings of the more sensitive and advanced type of public conscience. The element of mutual aid may be active in either sphere. According to this view the need for voluntary social services will not disappear even when the range of the activities of state expands. As the state takes over the work of this or that voluntary agency as has happened in the history of social work in India itself, other new institutions will spring up to meet these calls. However much we may think the role of the state ought to be increased, however far away we move from the *laissez faire* state, there are some things which the state should never do or never do alone.

In the conditions in which the country finds itself with the ending of the foreign rule, we discover that in the matter of education, sanitation, health, relief of the old and the infirm, education and training of the disabled and the defective, elimination of beggary, suppression of social vice, eradication of the evils of drink and drugs there is unlimited room for social work. Anxious as we are to progress all along the line it may seem that the speediest and best results can be obtained if the state

takes the initiative in all these matters and finds both the men and the money for the purpose. Where an element of public utility is concerned or where the service is deemed essential, undoubtedly the state must bestir itself and provide the services required.

However, in India today, there is still enormous scope for the beneficial gifts of money to be administered under voluntary management. The motives may be either mutual aid or philanthropy. But the medium of operation should be voluntary organisation which whether its workers are paid or unpaid is initiated and governed by its members without external control.

Rural Reconstruction and Welfare.—What makes rural society depressed and backward in India is the poverty of the people who constitute that society. Hence, one of the pre-requisites of rural reconstruction is the removal of the root causes which breed poverty. To establish conditions of social security among a population of 30 crores is not so simple or easy a proposition as providing social security for the 30 lakhs of our urban industrial population who alone are provided for under the labour legislation enacted in recent years. But still that more difficult task has to be essayed. A fair beginning has been made in this direction by governments at the centre and in the states. The abolition of Zamindari, the elimination of intermediaries between the state and tiller of the soil, the revision of the land revenue system, the reduction of the burden of debt, the regulation of money lending, the initiation of steps for prescribing a minimum wage for agricultural labour, the prevention of fragmentation and subdivision of lands, the regulation of agricultural marketing, these are some of the measures of agrarian reforms embarked upon for the relief of the peasantry and for their protection from exploitation. The passive

aspect of this programme is represented by schemes for the consolidation of holdings, by the provision of facilities, for cheap credit for seasonal operations, marketing and land improvement by the establishment of licenced warehouses, by the introduction of the system of co-operative farming and by the encouragement of joint endeavour comprised in the term agricultural organisation. This term covers also the elimination of unnecessary middlemen, the reduction of intermediary charges in the process of supply and sale. It includes, lastly, an advance in the technique of the principal rural industry viz. agriculture secured on broad based well ordered lines. The supply of improved seeds, manures, implements, methods all fall within the purview of this plan. The extension of the facilities of and scope for irrigated farming is yet another of these terms of economic welfare.

In no country, particularly one where farming is conducted on small-sized units of land, can the income from agriculture alone provide a living wage for those engaged in it. Subsistence farming as carried on in our midst must lead to indebtedness with all its attendant evil consequences. In our old world economy not only was there a healthy balance established between agriculture and industry, but industry based on agriculture brought in sustenance for the farmer's family. There is no salvation for the countryside and hence no salvation for India as a whole unless we accept rural industry as an integral part of our national economy. The rebuilding of rural industry connotes the fullest utilisation of the local raw materials, the employment of the local labour that is available in plenty and laying out of local funds by the way of the small expenditure that is required on tools and equipment undertaking this as an integral part of the plan of reconstruction: This may in-

volve some outlay of expenditure initially such as is now being incurred by several provincial governments through their Firka development or Sarvodaya or multi-co-operative plans. Such expenditure, however, goes to build up the inherent economic strength of the population of rural areas, employs their enforced periods of idleness profitably, aids in making the country self-sufficient in essential requirements and finally prevents the waste of public funds that the state may have to incur on the larger numbers that may be thrown out of employment with the rationalisation of our industries and our agriculture. From occupations allied to agriculture cattle breeding and dairying, poultry farming and bee-keeping can not be excluded.

It is because the promotion of rural welfare depends ultimately on the economic well being of the rural and predominantly agricultural population that so far I have dealt with some of the factors which affect their economic life. The social order that should emerge if these factors operate successfully is one where a healthy, peaceful and progressive life is possible for the rural community, withal in an atmosphere where democracy can flourish and human personality will have scope for development. The young generation get equipped for this life by a system of basic education suited to the local environments and deriving its strength and stability from the social and economic life of the community in the area. The community council or the panchayat too will then draw its resources from the rural community and throw up local leadership instead of seeking inspiration and material aid from outside. The same should be the case with the economic organisation which will have the regulation of the economic affairs of the producers in their own interests to the extent that such interests can be harmonised with

the interests of the surrounding area.

A new Communal life will develop on the basis of communal activity, social and economic, it being recognised that communal activity is more profitable than individual activity and that the organised community will be swifter to act and more progressive than the unorganised individual. Today with the social organisation in the countryside destroyed for all practical purposes the life of the rural population has become almost entirely individualistic. The lesson of associating with others having common interests and of holding possession in common has to be relearnt if we are to have a stable democratic basis for our new social order.

The ensuring of a pure and regular supply of drinking water, the disposal of night soil refuse, the introduction of social education, the opening of reading rooms, libraries and public meeting places, the organisation of games and sports for the young, of social amenities for women, the provision of facilities for training in handicrafts especially for women, the improvement of means of communication, the weaning away of people from indulgence in drink, the avoidance of social waste, the checking of resort to litigation and many items of the improvement of conditions of having social reform may engage the attention of social workers in rural areas. The state may stimulate such activity by grants-in-aid which are a financial contribution conditional on a contribution in kind or service by the people themselves.

Welfare of the Tribal People.—Interest in the welfare of the tribal people, it is no exaggeration to say, is a matter of 30 years growth. This was partly due to the remoteness or inaccessibility of the areas in which the tribal people resided, partly to the absorption of the limited number of social workers in problems nearer their homes,

partly to the prevailing ignorance of the habits and characteristics of these classes and unawareness of their needs and requirements. It is extraordinary however that suffering under all these handicaps foreign missionary bodies inspired, it may be by a religious impulse but animated undoubtedly by a spirit of social service did reach these sections of India's population, befriended them and tried to serve them. A special place has been accorded to these tribal people in the constitution of Free India. The promotion of the educational and economic interests of these sections of the people becomes the special care of the State. It also becomes the concern of the state, the constitution prescribes, to protect those belonging to the scheduled tribes from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. The provision of special facilities for education, the reservation of seats for their representatives in the legislature, the recognition of their claims for government service, these are all guaranteed. A special commission is to be instituted to watch how the safeguards operate and how the facilities are made available in the various parts of the country where tribal people reside in large numbers and to advise about how their welfare can be best promoted. These sections of action taken have probably differed but the aim of those who have framed the constitution, in the affairs of democratic India through the programme that have been taken dom brings in its train.

Some fair beginning in the direction of protecting the interests of and promoting the welfare of the scheduled tribes has already been made in various provinces. The lines of action taken have probably differed but there is an underlying impulse running through the programme that have been taken in hand. Education comes first.

Where special schools are opened in the tribal areas courses of education are so

framed to suit their requirements. In parts of the country where the scheduled tribes still lead a primitive and simple life away from the haunts of the plain dwellers, the lines to be pursued for opening to them the portals of knowledge may be somewhat different from those followed for instance among the Bhils in Bombay. However, refusal to promote a well-designed programme of social education can only lead to the segregation of these sections of the population and to the perpetuation of their exploitation and oppression by the outside world by the powerful elements among themselves.

In fact, affording protection against social injustice is in the forefront of all programmes of tribal welfare. These classes benefit by the legislation enacted for regulating the relations of tenants, debtors, and creditors labourers and their employers. In some provinces special laws are already in force for affording further protection. In Bombay one of the benefits conferred by the restricted rights tenure has been to enable Bhils and other tribal communities to retain their ownership of the lands cultivated by them as a result of the operation of the restrictions placed on the mortgage and sale of land. Special rights are conferred in respect of the use of wood, grass and other products for individual use. For labour employed in the tribal areas wages are fixed by executive orders which are enforced as part of the conditions on which contracts are entered into by the forest department.

It may be provided that when deforestation takes place or waste lands in adjacent areas are thrown open for cultivation persons belonging to the scheduled tribes should be given preference in the allotment of land. This is done in Bombay with the further provision that wherever feasible the tribal cultivators who are allotted lands form themselves into co-operative societies. A new development is the organisation of co-opera-

tive labour contract societies composed of persons belonging principally to the scheduled tribes for taking up from the forest department contracts of various descriptions but particularly for the felling of trees and the disposal of timber and the manufacture of charcoal. The main work of the societies is to work the coupes and sell the products. Incidentally they provide the basis for organised work for other purposes for the benefits of the persons grouped together in the societies. The collection of honey in the forest from colonies of wild bees is a subsidiary occupation for the scheduled tribe people. A similar useful activity which should bring in a good return for labour is the collection of plants, herbs, roots, berries, wild flowers suitable as ingredients for medical preparations. This by no means exhausts the lists of activities that may be undertaken for the welfare of the tribal people. An organisation like a grain bank has been found to be of considerable service in providing aid in kind when it is most badly needed. Centuries of exploitation and oppression have made the once brave and warlike tribal people timid and afraid of those in authority. The abolition of forced labour is now being enforced everywhere but petty exactions and tyranny are not at an end. A wide awake social service agency

can help effectively by checking malpractices and securing quick redress of petty complaints and grievances.

Anxious as we are to witness the democratic republic of India assuming the role of a welfare state it is but natural that there should be a demand for the expansion of social services to be provided by the state. The task is so varied, so manifold, so stupendous that with the best will in the world, the resources at the disposal of the state are altogether too inadequate to permit of quick progress being achieved. Hence, an order of priorities has to be determined and first things come first. The welfare of the tribal people must come first, the promotion of rural reconstruction comes next and social services for the rest of the community may have to come last. The order of priorities is based on the desire to redress inequalities and to ensure in so far as it lies within our power, conditions of equality, of opportunity in various spheres of life. By deliberate organisation and collective effort we must increase in the first place the material resources of the nation and then so arrange their distribution that an ever larger proportion is employed not for private gratification but for the common advantage. Only then can the republic be deemed truly democratic.

RURAL RECONSTRUCTION AND WELFARE

B. NATARAJAN

India's teeming millions live in villages. Only about 12.3 per cent of the estimated population of the nine provinces of the Indian Union (where somewhat reliable statistics are available) live in towns. This percentage of Urban Population must be less in the States Unions.

In this context of such wide preponderance of rural population no scheme of economic, cultural or social advancement

will have any meaning unless it is calculated to directly raise the living standards of the people in rural India. Rural welfare is Indian Welfare.

The rural population of India is not a homogeneous mass, having the same standard of economic advancement but diversified, heterogeneous group in different levels of progress. Among them, it is however easy to distinguish three broad classes—the tribal

people, the scheduled castes and the rest. All these three classes are faced with the same set of problems—poverty, illiteracy, ill-health, inaccessibility and lack of leadership. But they differ in degree though not in kind; the problems of the tribal people are more formidable than those of the scheduled castes and theirs in turn more complex than those of the rest of the population.

In the nine provinces of the Indian Union the estimated population of the scheduled castes is about 36.688 millions or 14.82 per cent of the total and 15.38 per cent of the rural population. The entire population of the scheduled castes does not live in rural areas - between one-tenth and one-twelfth live in Urban areas.

The population of the tribal people in these provinces is estimated at 16.549 millions or 6.68 per cent of the total population and 7.64 per cent of the rural population. More than three-fourths of the population is concentrated in the four provinces of Bihar, C.P., Assam and Orissa accounting for 13.211 millions.

Of the 87.7 per cent of the total rural population 15.38 per cent belong to the Scheduled castes and 7.64 per cent to the tribal people. Comparatively with a very low income the rural population in India maintain a deplorably low standard of living. Living on low diet, suffering from mal-nutrition, occupying ramshackle huts and insanitation all round, the rural population lead sub-human standards of living; epidemics like small pox, cholera and plague play havoc with their lives. Malaria and tuberculosis levy a heavy toll on their lives. A competent authority has estimated that the average number of deaths in India due to preventable diseases is of the order of six millions a year. The problem of illiteracy is colossal in India and more so in rural parts. Illiteracy keeps people mostly in

ignorance resulting in very low earning capacity. Slums and congestion are not the monopoly of the urban areas only; they are found in equally gruesome conditions in rural areas too. Most of the villages lack leaders and organisers while vast manpower is going to waste in the midst of huge potentialities for gainful employment. Agriculture the primary occupation of the rural masses has long remained a deficit economy.

Fragmentation and subdivision of holdings, inferior breeds of cattle, primitive implements, vagaries of monsoons, pests and diseases are some of the well-known causes of the low productivity of agriculture and the poverty of the Indian ryot. Zamindari system now under liquidation, failed to produce either pioneers in agriculture or contented tenantry. Agrarian reforms on sound lines are urgent needs to place agricultural economy on a prosperous footing.

Construction of irrigation works, sinking of wells and renovation of tanks will ward off droughts. Consolidation of holdings with a view to the formation of economic holdings, on voluntary co-operative basis has been fairly successful in the Punjab. Measures for compulsory consolidation are under investigation in many of the provinces. But the economic consequences of consolidation will be of a mixed nature. It may mean absolute unemployment of 78.836 millions in the nine provinces of the Indian Union. Unless provisions are made for solving this hard core of unemployment, reforms aiming at formation of economic holdings will result in a crop of unexpected difficulties.

The establishment of cottage industries-man or machine-driven, in the rural parts is an indispensable necessity for providing adequate employment and increasing the income of the people in rural parts. Modern technological improvements coupled with

electricity have made the establishment of small scale industries in large numbers in the countryside. In short, rural economy in India is marked by poverty, under-employment, mal-nutrition, disease, insanitation, ignorance and squalor. To promote rural welfare the prime need is the abolition of poverty and wasteful idleness; as the tide of employment rises income will *pro tanto* rise and most of the problems of the rural population would begin to get solved.

The modern state is primarily a welfare state and expenditure on social services has sharply increased in western countries. Among the provinces in India, expenditure on education, medical aid and public health has risen five fold in Bombay and C.P., three and three fourth fold in U. P. and Orissa, three and one third fold in Madras and Assam and three fold in Bihar in the decade between 1938-39, and 1949-50. The total expenditure of the nine provinces has risen from Rs. 16.84 crores to Rs. 56.25 crores or 3.3 fold; the per capita expenditure on these services has increased from Rs. 0.9-9 to Rs. 2.4-4 or 3.73 times. However, the share of the expenditure on social services to total expenditure has slightly declined from 20.92 per cent to 20.40 per cent.

The new ministries in the Provinces when congress party accepted office in 1946 have taken up this problem of rural welfare in greater earnest than their predecessors. At the end of 1946 the congress ministry in Madras set up a new department known as Firka development department with the object of accelerating the economic development and promoting social welfare in 34 selected firkas or groups of villages. To organise within a specified interval of time the villages in selected Firkas for maximum productivity, full employment, and better social and living conditions with the active cooperation of the villagers—this in essence is the object of the Firka develop-

ment scheme. With the targets attained in the selected firkas and with the experience gained in their attainment, the programme of work will extend to other Firkas where success will become easier and quicker of achievement.

The scheme of work is being carried on in five distinct spheres:

- (1) Agriculture and Village Industries.
- (2) Sanitation, Health and Housing,
- (3) Village Education,
- (4) Village Organisation and
- (5) Village Culture.

This scheme has been put into operation in 34 selected firkas containing 2859 villages.

In West Bengal the activities of the rural reconstruction society are directed to improving economic conditions, sanitation and education. In Assam, Rural Development Centres each covering a population of about 10,000 are proposed to be set up under the five year plan. Each centre has a model agricultural farm, some stud bulls, a dispensary, library and facilities for training in some selected cottage industry. In C. P. a separate rural development office has been started in 1948 which has the following three sections. (1) Provincial rural development board, (2) Backward areas welfare section, and (3) Village industries section. In Bombay a provincial rural development board has been constituted with the object of advising the government on the general principles and the policy of rural development.

Harijan Uplift:—An integral part of the rural development programme is Harijan uplift. Harijan Welfare work in Madras was mainly concentrated on the opening of labour schools, granting of scholarships, provision of mid-day meals to school-going children, acquisition of house sites, repair and construction of wells and assignment of land for cultivation.

The problem of the tribal people is not peculiar to India. In North America there are the American Indians called Algonkin, Abnaki and Crees; in Central Australia there is a tribe known as Arunta, a typical stone age hunting people with peculiar beliefs, rituals and customs; the Red Indian population in Mexico is nearly five million; the Maoris belonging to the great polynesian race inhabit the scattered Island groups of the eastern pacific; the negroes in the U.S. are subject to several social disabilities.

In India the most important aboriginals or tribal people are the Bygas, Bhils, Chakmas of Chittagong hills tribes Gadabasis of Koraput and Visakapatanam districts, Caros, Kacharis, Kashis, Nagas of Assam, Gonds of C.P., Katkuris, the Mountain tribe in Thana and Kolaba Districts, Khondas of Orissa, Kudubis of South Kanara, Kurumbas of Malabar and others. In view of the vast tribal population in India the problem of bringing them into the fold of civilisation is at once formidable and urgent.

In 1946, under the direction of A. V. Thacker a survey of the Tribal people was made and a five-year plan formulated. In Madras the Provincial Tribes Welfare Enquiry Committee (1946) recommended for the establishment of a department of tribal Welfare for representation in the legislature and local bodies for liberal assistance from the co-operative department for the passing of a Land Alienation Act for the agency

tribes and an intensive scheme for the education of the tribal people. Both Bombay and Orissa have set up separate departments to look after the interests of the tribal people.

The greatest difficulty in bearing the torch of civilization into the mountain recesses where these tribal people live is the deadly malaria. They live invariably in the malaria ridden jungles, to penetrate into them an army of undaunted social workers, engineers, doctors, agricultural demonstrators and educationists are required. State should provide the necessary finance and society the necessary human resources.

The tribal people live below the poverty line. They must be taught to settle down in selected regions. They must be trained in cottage industries utilising forest resources. The problem of housing them calls for stupendous effort. Large number of schools will have to be opened by government and local bodies and philanthropic Associations. Since they speak a multitude of dialects even the teaching of three R's will offer considerable difficulties. Patient work and propaganda are required to wean them away from the superstitious beliefs and unhealthy habits. Adequate medical relief must form an integral part of the welfare work. Communications must be developed between the tribal tracts and the plains. All this require a concerted effort on the part of the central, provincial and local governments supported by private Philanthropic and humanitarian organisations.

STATE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SOCIAL WORK

S. R. VENKATARAMAN

The modern state is fast becoming a welfare state. It has assumed the role of a benevolent parent in respect of those welfare services which are necessary for the social security and welfare of the state as a whole. Ordinarily if a state provided facilities for education, medical help and pub-

lic health it was considered enough. No longer can the state confine itself to this restricted field of social service. Conditions in the world are fast undergoing changes demanding readjustment of the duties and responsibilities of states in respect of their obligations to their subjects. The scope

and content of the responsibility of the state for social services have extended and increased so as to include in addition to the services already mentioned such services as information services, nutrition, housing and town-planning, social work connected with the law courts, the improvement of prisons, community centres, rural centres, child welfare, youth welfare and labour welfare and other forms of social service and assistance from the "cradle to the grave."

The responsibilities of a modern state for the social welfare of its citizens it accepted as one of its fundamental duties towards its citizens. But the responsibilities vary with the character of the state. In a totalitarian state like Russia the entire responsibility for the social welfare of its citizens rests entirely on the state and there is no room for voluntary agencies. In democratically governed states like England and America the responsibility is shared between the government and the employer or employed or the individual as the case may be and in a Federal State like America the responsibility is again shared by the federal and the state Governments.

Britain the best example.—The government of the United Kingdom is now responsible either through the central or local authorities for a range of services embracing subsistence for the needy, education and health services for all, housing, employment or maintenance or the care of the aged and the handicapped, the nutrition of mothers and children, sickness and industrial benefits, widows and retirement pensions and children's allowances.

With the implementation of the various social security schemes expenditure on social services in Britain is a very noticeable feature. Apart from expenditure on Education, Medical Aid, Public Health, United Kingdom spends on social security payments like non-contributory pensions, family allow-

ances, milk and vitamin products and an employment allowance in addition to exchequer contributions to National Insurance Fund. Expenditure on these items of new services was about 320 million pounds in 1948.

America:—Because of the Federal system of government functions and responsibilities are divided between the state and the nation by the constitution. Although the Federal Government has assumed and is assuming more responsibility for public welfare an increasingly large amount of responsibility belongs to the states. Within each state, state laws define the scope of the state and local welfare functions with the chief responsibility for leadership in this field resting with the state in every case.

The Social Security Act passed by the U. S. Congress on the 14th August 1934 during the Roosevelt regime on the initiative of President Roosevelt profoundly changed the scope of public welfare in the U. S. not only in the Federal Government but down through the States to the most insignificant unit of local government participating in the programme.

The problem of unemployment which faced the U. S. in 1933 was responsible for the establishment of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. This relief was to be administered with the co-operation of the various participating states. So the states set up relief machineries to be eligible for the federal grants.

When F. D. Roosevelt became the president of the U. S. A. he had the Social Security Act passed superseding the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. The Act provides for a federally administered system of old age insurance and for federally aided but state administered systems of unemployed compensation. In 1939 the old age insurance programme was broad-based to

include benefits for the survivors of the covered worker.

The Social Security Act provides grants to public health departments for crippled children's services, maternal and child health service and certain other health programmes and to State education departments for an expansion of vocational rehabilitation. It also gives grants for assistance to dependent children, the needy blind person over 65 years of age.

At the end of 1945 State Federal Programmes of old age assistance, aid to dependent children and the blind was in almost all the states.

If the state is to get federal funds under the social security act there must be financial assistance from the local public. Though the war did not materially change the responsibility of the state for public welfare it added many new functions which were specifically related to wartime needs.

Another new approach to the social problems is the proposal of the American Public Welfare Association of America that a comprehensive assistance programme with Federal aid for state and local authorities to meet any type of need regardless of its origin or character.

On May 16, President Truman announced several reorganisation proposals under his executive authority. The federal security agency was constituted under four main operating branches.

- (1) Social Security administration including Bureau of old age and survivor's insurance, Bureau of unemployment security, Bureau of Public Assistance and Children's Bureau.
- (2) Office of Education.
- (3) Public Health Services.
- (4) Office of special services including Bureau of employees compensation, employees com-

pension appeals board, food and drug administration, office of vocational rehabilitation and office of community war service.

Canada:—The responsibility for social welfare in Canada has rested on the Provinces which in turn have delegated a large share of this responsibility to the municipalities. Public welfare has recently grown to include more than poor relief, sanitation and institutions of confinement. The provinces have undertaken to meet the expanding needs of maintaining one kind of institution or another such as child welfare services and specialised programmes so the provinces have latterly assumed a major role for public services in co-ordinating and assisting by subsidies and other means.

Care of the indigent aged, and the infirm, homeless orphans, dependent, neglected and delinquent children and the dependent deaf, dumb and blind have been recognised as public responsibility from the earliest days but they were undertaken by religious or philanthropic bodies and since the confederation it has become the responsibility of the state.

Provincial Welfare Services:—Provinces administer the following Statutes (1) Public Health Act, (2) The Old Age Pension Act, (3) The Children's Act, (4) Vital Statistics Act.

Other provinces are concerned with the following matters. (1) Child protection, (2) Assistance to and supervision of children's Aid Societies. (3) Supervision of Children in adoptive and foster homes (4) Family case work (5) Psychiatric service to children and families under 3 and 4 and for public school on the request of the education department. Mother's allowances, youth welfare homes for the aged, social aid to the indigent persons in co-operation with various municipal units of the province which is shared on a 50-50

basis by the province and the municipality concerned.

Administration and the personnel:—The new dominion department of Health and Welfare established in 1944 integrates for the first time public health grants to the provinces, family allowances, old age pensions and recreations and provides what never had previously existed in Ottawa a central agency for all planning on social security.

(1) Major functions such as the relief of destitution and medical care have been progressively transferred from private to public agencies.

(2) Transfer of both administrative and financial from the local governments to the provincial and from the provinces to the dominion. In spite of the constitution the dominion government is very much committed to the operation and financing of social services.

(3) Specialised services to meet particular needs such as Mothers' allowances, old age pensions, tuberculosis control and various forms of social insurance have grown up to relieve the older generalised programme of poor relief, public health and hospitalisation of responsibilities for dealing with particular problems.

(4) Measures of administrative reform to co-ordinate existing services and to bring order out of confusion of separate and unrelated schemes.

(5) Coordination of private social services by developing community chests, and council and other planning machinery.

(6) Professionally qualified persons are rapidly assuming positions of leadership in the administration of social services.

Soviet Russia:—Russians declare that the realisation of the five-year plan has banished unemployment from Russia and consequently unemployment insurance also. But other forms of insurance continue such as sickness and accident of the individual male worker

and his family. The allowances are graded and the funds from which the allowances are made are supplied by the industrial enterprises in which the worker is employed and the insurance fund is calculated on the percentage of wages paid out. Thus the worker makes no direct contribution. This insurance also covers funeral benefits, maternity benefits, old age and widow's pensions and convalescent holidays. But these entirely depend on the decision of the trade unions in which the worker is a member. For workers, the trade unions provide clubrooms, parks, athletic clubs, libraries, educational classes, cinemas, theatre, holidays and leisure and very often a stadium. If a worker is lucky and in the good books of his trade union he may be sent to the holiday homes in the caucasian mountain and on the shores of the black sea.

Women's status in Russia has risen in several respects. She is the equal of man. A pregnant woman is given a holiday for one month before and one month after child birth. For a working mother creche and nursery school for children up to eight are provided. There are several other facilities provided to make the life of children in Russia happy.

Education in Russia is compulsory for all from 8 to 15 years. There are voluntary schools for adults where men and women learn to read and write. There are classes in technical subjects also. The peasants in Russia have also been cared for. Under the system of collective farming the worker gets assistance in sickness and infirmity. Attached to a collective farm there is normally the usual creche and nursery.

The soviet public health system has two aspects: free medical care and prevention of disease. The net work of medical institutions in Soviet Russia was built with a view to effecting the best possible way of preventing diseases. Attached to every

industrial undertaking there are dispensaries for specialised treatment. There is a remarkable improvement in the application of modern scientific methods and of specialised treatment in rural districts; regional hospitals take care of the rural population. The state sponsors health resorts, sanatoria and rest houses in addition to trade unions. Maternity and child welfare have also received equal attention. With the ever increasing number of working mothers the number of nurseries has also increased which take care of the children from their 28th day after birth upto the age of three.

The subject of Soviet Special Security is very wide in its scope as will be seen from the following structure of the ministry of social assistance.

(1) General inspection in the field of social assistance, supervision of the activity of the autonomous republics but also (a) granting of payment of pensions and benefits to the families of soldier's pensions to the war invalids and to families which lost their bread winner. (b) Vocational re-training of invalids, training members of their families and providing them with jobs. (c) supervision over invalid homes, organisation of supply of artificial limbs and braces, supervision over the federation of disabled persons co-operatives, the federation of mutual assistance funds of these co-operatives over the association of blind, the association of deaf and dumb.

(2) General direction of Social assistance, supervise assistance to disabled persons, grants, benefits and pensions, supervises the mutual aid funds of the collective farms, suggests measures for improving the living conditions of war invalids, supervises the application of the pertinent legislation.

(3) Division of training and employment.

(4) Division of homes for the invalids

(5) Division dealing with personal pensions.

(6) Section dealing with medical labour examination.

While considering all these developments it is well to bear in mind that the social service systems of the soviet is not static. It is liable to constant change and modification.

India.—The responsibility for social work in India is shared by the central, provincial and local governments. Whenever there are great nation-wide disasters or major problems affecting the whole country and the resources of the provinces are unequal to meet the situation, the central government steps in and tackles the problem at the All India level with its own special machinery and in the provinces with grants-in-aid to provincial governments.

The Government of India's role in the departments of Education, Medical Services and Public Health is on an all India basis and is restricted to higher research and training institutions in advanced education, public health and medical methods. Besides, for what is called emergency relief on the rehabilitation of the displaced persons provision had been made for an expenditure of Rs. 9.85 crores and on subsidising imported foodgrains Rs. 32.97 crores. The government of India inaugurated a health insurance scheme for industrial workers through a corporation called Medical Benefit Council on April 1929. This organisation will be promoted jointly by provincial governments and the corporation for advancing the health welfare of the people. The scheme is intended in the first instance for the benefit of industrial workers who number about 2.5 millions. The benefit which this body will confer on the labourers will be medical and through out-patient service with adequate staff and equipment. There will be provision also for domiciliary visits

by the doctor and the nurse to the patient's home when he or she cannot conveniently come over to the dispensary for receiving medical attention, as also hospitalisation for them. Under this scheme medical treatment will be provided to all insured persons by the provincial governments the corporation bearing two-thirds of the cost.

Another important step taken by the government of India to provide more amenities to labour is the Employees State Insurance Corporation, which will be responsible under the provisions of the Employees Estate Insurance Act for the organisation of social security for workers with incomes below Rs. 40 a month partly by the provision of medical care and partly by cash payments in the case of pregnant women. Pregnant women and nursing mothers under the Act will get cash benefit of as. 12 per day for three months.

The Provincial governments of India spend on the three conventional departments of social work such as education, medical aid and public health and on other emergency reliefs in so far they affect the province such as famine, floods and cyclone relief. In almost all the provinces in recent years there has been an all round increase in the amounts spend on three departments mentioned above. By far the largest expenditure under social services is devoted to education.

Bombay:—In the industrially advanced state of Bombay we find that more attention is being paid to labour welfare such as

housing than in other provinces.

The main items of expenditure under social services are education, medical, public health, public health projects, village water supply, labour and labour welfare, housing, backward classes, milk supply and new schemes the details of which had to be worked out. In the matter of housing which is considered to be one of the most important items of social service which the state should render to its subjects the Bombay government is unique.

As far as India is considered in almost all the provinces the governments are confining their attention only to the three departments of social services namely education, medical aid and the public health. The limited and inelastic finances in the absence of taxation stand in the way of the governments providing several other benefits and facilities necessary for the social and economic well being of the individual, particularly the labourer. It is necessary to evolve a system of social insurance which would not cut into the general revenue of the state but which should be financed from the mutual contributions to such an insurance fund by the labourer and the industry. It has not been possible to deal with the other provinces for want of data. However, two of the most leading provinces have been discussed in this paper which will give an idea of how the forward provinces in India have been discharging their responsibilities in the three fields of social service mentioned above.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE THIRD ANNUAL SESSION.

Section I : State and Social Services.

Chairman: Hon'ble Shri V. L. Mehta

Secretary: Mr. K. S. Nigam

Record: Mr. Faiyaz Ahmed Faizee

(i) *Rural Reconstruction and welfare:*

1. The Indian Conference of Social

Work is of the opinion that in view of the fact that India is overwhelmingly a rural country, a comprehensive programme of social security for those engaged in Agriculture and Allied Industries is of the utmost importance. The programme, amongst other things, should include regulations of relation

between tenants and landlords, the payment of a living wage to agricultural labour the reduction of the burden of debt and the control of usury, the regulation of agricultural marketing and the prevention of subdivision and fragmentation of land.

2. To overcome the handicaps imposed by the prevailing small unit of cultivation and for the promotion of a more progressive agriculture the Conference recommends the adoption of following measures:—

(a) Co-operative Farming, (b) Organization of Agricultural Labour, (c) Settlement of Landless Labour in collective farms and (d) Revival and expansion of village industries suited to modern conditions.

3. The improvement of conditions of health and hygiene as well as Maternity and Child Welfare should be the essential features of all well-conceived schemes of rural welfare. These schemes should be worked principally by the State in co-operation with the village Panchayats.

4. The conditions of housing in most villages being deplorable, particularly for the backward classes, the Conference recommends the provision of house sites, facilities for the supply of cheap building materials and assistance in the formation and financing of co-operative housing schemes by the State.

5. In as much as education is the basis of social progress, the Conference recommends that a comprehensive programme of education including vocational training in crafts for men and women should be undertaken by the State in collaboration with appropriate private agencies.

6. The Conference urges upon social workers and the State to stimulate initiative and develop local leadership and encourage local organisations to grow up on the basis of self-help and mutual aid. These organizations may derive funds from community chests or panchayat funds to be supplemented where necessary by contributions and sub-

ventions from outside.

(ii) *State and Social Services:—*

1. The Conference reiterates the recommendations made at the last session that for the promotion of various measures of social welfare there should be created both at the Centre and in the Provinces, Ministries of Public Welfare which should be in charge of all matters relating to the provision of social services of various types. The Ministry of Public Welfare, with a separate budget allotment of its own, should be the connecting link between Government and voluntary social service agencies, and be the medium through which, ordinarily, grants-in-aid subsidies, subventions and other forms of assistance should be made by Government.

2. The Conference recommends the appointment of a committee to mark out the respective roles of the State and the voluntary agencies in various fields of social work.

3. The Conference considers that a complete plan of social security will take some time to be evolved and to be fully in operation. However, the Conference deems it essential that the following measures should be given a high priority:—

(a) Freedom from want for the underprivileged, the old, the infirm and the handicapped.

(b) Enough and adequate housing accommodation in urban areas.

(c) Universal, free and compulsory primary education.

(d) Extensive and adequate health services.

4. The Conference is of the opinion that the Central and the Provincial Governments should (a) ensure full enforcement of the existing social welfare legislation including minimum wage legislation (b) introduce crop and cattle insurance, (c) devise comprehensive and effective measures for emergency relief,

5. The Ministry of Public Welfare, the Conference recommends, should provide full facilities to the Universities and appropriate institutions for training social workers on scientific lines.

(iii) *Welfare of tribal people:—*

1. The Conference recommends:

- (a) that a comprehensive programme for social, economic and medical welfare of the tribal people should be drawn up by a committee consisting of experts and experienced

men in the field;

(b) that community settlements in tribal areas should be set up by social workers for the promotion of welfare services and improvement of living standards among the tribal communities;

(c) that in view of the fact that the Criminal Tribes Act operates very harshly on certain castes and communities in certain provinces it recommends that it should be deleted from the Statute Book.

FAMILY AND CHILD WELFARE SERVICES AND YOUTH WELFARE

MRS. RENUKA RAY

(As Mrs. Renuka Ray could not be present at the Conference, Mrs. Hannah Sen read this paper instead and also acted as Chairman of the Section).

In the present day world swift changes are taking place. In the scientific and technological field changes revolutionizing the material aspect of society are manifest before our eyes, but the psychological changes, the changes in the very approach towards the human problems and of human values, which are finding expression in the changing structure of society though less apparent are equally, if not more, rapid. In this new context of things what is the position of the family and the child? In the modern world a number of complex problems have arisen which have a profound bearing on the family. When life itself was simpler the problems with which the home and the family had to contend were of an infinitely easier nature. However it would be unrealistic not to grapple with the issues that face us.

In recent times a volume of literature has been produced revolving round the family and the child. In many countries there is distinct advance and there are many ventures of an experimental nature seeking to meet the psychological needs of child. It is recognised today that every new born child has an inherent right to conditions of health,

training, and environment which will help him to be fitted for the responsibilities of citizenship. The state thus has a direct responsibility towards the child and the family.

It may be said that the one factor which is stable in this changing world is that the family and the home will remain the nucleus of society. It is only where it is impossible to obtain the minimum requirements even after providing the complementary services for the family setting that the child will become the direct responsibility of the state.

As a result of two hundred years of neglect in India, the country is up against the lack of even the most elementary services. We have first to consider how far parents of the average normal family in this country are in a position to undertake their responsibilities towards children. How far is the potential mother equipped to produce the environment so necessary for the proper upbringing of the child?

Apart from the upper middle classes, family planning is neither understood nor is there any knowledge of preventive methods. The improvements of amenities for the poorer sectors of the populace by

providing all the accessories such as maternity and child welfare clinics, children's hospitals, improved housing conditions, nursery schools and creches, compulsory school education and adult education will help more towards bringing about real welfare in the family than any rise in money wages. Although such attempts are now on the way, it has not been possible to obtain very great or substantial results. The lack of trained personnel is perhaps our greatest handicap and when this problem is tackled on an adequate scale we shall be able to make considerable advance. Social welfare organisations throughout the country can help a great deal to ensure the successful implementation of the drive for adult education in the provinces particularly amongst women. This would bring a tremendous change in the environment of the child and help the parents to take an intelligent interest as citizens in the welfare of the society and the nation.

One of the major problems we have to tackle in this country is the basic one of food. Free and subsidised milk kitchens, free mid-day meals in schools and nurseries for children and pregnant mothers of both the poorest and middleclass poor on a nation-wide scale have become a compelling necessity in this country.

It is not in the homes of the ignorant and the uneducated alone that the environment provided is detrimental to the child's growth. It is certainly the duty of the welfare state to safeguard the family environment and to give every child of every sector of society opportunities to develop himself to his fullest capacity. The basic system of education evolved under the inspiration of Mahatma Gandhi is one which can meet the needs of the great majority of the children of school-going age. The system of education in India both in Schools and Colleges needs both

reconditioning and expansion. Although the State must assume its responsibilities in the direction of achieving results of the working of the directive principles regarding safeguarding of youth and childhood from exploitation, there is no doubt that social welfare organisations will have to play a very outstanding and notable part in order to achieve the desired results. There are certain Children Acts in some of the provinces. None of these are so far effective as they should be. A large number of children become victims of professional beggars and of gamblers. Although there are Acts for the suppression of immoral traffic in almost all the provinces there is much work that has still to be done in this direction. It is a problem which will require in the immediate future, a great deal of concentrated attention. A sufficient number of homes for the children and young women who have to be rescued and protected will need to be set up.

The problem of the delinquent child and of physically and mentally handicapped has not been tackled in this country. With proper care and supervision the delinquent child can be turned into a normal citizen. These types of children need specialised help and care and it is not possible even for the enlightened homes to deal with their problems with any degree of success. As a result of the endeavours of devoted social workers here and there, there are institutions in this country for the care of the handicapped which can compare well with such institutions outside but their numbers are few.

Turning to the welfare of the youth in this country it must be said that here also there is a great lacuna. In the adult education drive special emphasis has to be laid on the needs and requirements of uneducated youth. Their problems will need

some distinctive treatment and can be tackled largely through recreative activities. Facilities for social welfare work or recreative and intellectual activities for the young men and women who go to our schools and our universities are also lacking to a large extent.

There are now attempts to organise youths in different ways. Compulsory mobilisation of educated youth for social services through the introduction of at least one year of social service as a condition precedent to

the grant of university degree will be beneficial both to the young women and men concerned and will help towards the inauguration of many vital nation building services which today cannot be started due to the lack of trained personnel.

The stability of society and of the nation will depend largely on the manner in which we are able to strengthen the family and give the children and the youth of our country the opportunity and the atmosphere which will fit them towards the progress and advancement of their nation.

FAMILY AND CHILD WELFARE SERVICES

M. S. GORE

The twentieth century came to be called the century of the child even before the second decade was over but now within three decades of its being given that name the emphasis has shifted from the mere child to the child in the family. It seems to be felt that the mere enumeration of the rights of children is not enough for the fulfilment of the child's needs. The better approach would perhaps be to understand the needs not only of the child but of the immediate environments with which he interacts. Without a reference to the family an understanding of the child's needs is difficult because while it is possible to list the needs of the child it is at the same time necessary to consider the possibility of the family being able to meet these needs. From the point of view of the community, therefore, it is the child in the family rather than the child and the family that is important.

The outlining of family and the child welfare services is possible only with a clear understanding of the welfare needs of the two on the one hand, and a clear concept of an ideal of healthy and adequate functioning of family life on the other. From being an association which was both a con-

suming and a producing unit which met the cultural, recreational and sometimes even the simple medical needs of its members the family has during the last 60 years been gradually losing one function after another. Against this background and at a time when the individuation of the personality of the marrying partners has proceeded to an extent where adjustment is not easy, if not impossible, the family is faced with a serious challenge.

Democracy if it is not to be merely a rule by numbers must be based on the respect for individual personality and the acceptance of the maximum possible growth of that personality as an end in itself. On the other hand there is a need, simultaneously, for socialising the individual. The institution of the family seems ideally suited to meet both these requirements.

If this idea of fostering the maximum possible growth of individual personality within a given social environment is accepted as an important value implied in the acceptance of a democratic pattern of life then the emphasis on the welfare services for the family and the child need no further justification. Welfare services are a function

of the welfare needs of a group. These welfare needs with reference to the family can be in the sphere of health, education, recreation, inter-personal relationship, family planning by utilization of available leisure, time and adequacy of economic earnings. A plan of services to meet these needs can only be based on the establishing of certain minimum standards which are thought necessary if the basic value mentioned above is to be cherished. These standards will naturally vary from place to place and from time to time.

In each of the spheres mentioned above the object of the social services offered will be to meet the needs of the subnormal or the non-normal individuals as also to help the normal to function effectively.

From the point of view of health the services must begin at the time of birth or more correctly from the time of conception, and the first step in this direction would be to undertake an effective maternity and infant welfare service run by a trained staff consisting of a consulting physician, two or more health visitors and a number of trained Daies.

The work of the maternity and welfare societies in various parts of the country is a step in the right direction but their efforts have not been very fruitful because of certain difficulties and problems. Most of the centres started by these societies are situated in Urban areas and to that extent they meet the needs of the industrial workers but the vast majority of our rural population which is equally in need of guidance as well as help is not yet served by these societies. There is not an adequate number of medically qualified persons who can offer such service in rural areas and the utilization of part time honorary services from medical men from the urban areas is almost impossible in the face of the difficulties of communication. There is another difficulty

in case of other societies. This difficulty is very real. Most of our welfare societies are not in a position to afford to pay the salaries of qualified trained staff.

Even within the limitations in which the maternity and infant societies are working it is possible to obtain better results by greater co-ordination and co-operation between these bodies. This co-ordination could be based on the following points.

- (1) Exchange of information
- (2) Adoption of common methods and standards of service
- (3) Exchange of personnel and sharing of technical guidance and
- (4) Mutual aid even in the sphere of finance.

When the child grows out of the stage of infancy to become a toddler and later a young boy or a girl his health needs in the case of illness, may still continue to be met by hospitalised care but the growth of his personality will not be helped by services which meet only his physical needs. It can be encouraged by free physical activity, organised play and properly supervised pre-school education. Here again there are a large number of institutions individually functioning in different areas and meeting the needs of different community groups as in the case of the maternity and child welfare services. These institutions are also restricted to the Urban areas. In the field of education of young child there is a great deal of difference of opinion regarding methodology between different schools of thought in the west along with the methods our educators have inherited from these differences so that our problem in this sphere is not merely the extending of services to larger and larger groups but also a problem of arriving at a satisfactory method suited to our school conditions.

Besides the question of method there is the more important problem of the extension of services to larger and larger groups. This cannot be done without the government taking active interest in the education of the pre-school child. The suggestions made by the Sarjant Committee report have not been in force in any sphere and least of all in this particular one.

Education of the child becomes vitally important after the age of 16. Compulsory and free primary education is a necessary measure if we are to make a beginning towards the development of an educated community which is the only sound foundation for democracy. While the school pays special attention to the intellectual growth of the child it does not always succeed in attending to other aspects of his personality. The development of personal discipline, capacity to affect relationship with others, and a healthy interest in hobbies could be fostered at this stage of the child's life. Organised group games, hobby clubs and scouting activities are some of the means through which the development of these characteristics can be helped. For children who are either physically, mentally or socially handicapped these services in themselves are not enough. The physically and mentally handicapped children have to be trained in institutions whose aim is so to equip them that they may function as normal individuals as far as possible. The progress made in India in this direction is very meagre, with the exception of a few good institutions in the metropolis cities of our provinces. There is no unified coordinated effort yet made. One of the major drawbacks is the absence of any accurate information regarding the actual extent of the problem. Besides there is also the absence of suitable equipment. There is a need for equipment and trained personnel.

While the physically and the mentally handicapped children are a real responsi-

bility of the social group their existence is perhaps not as much of a menace to social health, as is the existence of the socially handicapped. The term socially handicapped is intended to include the dependent, the neglected, the destitute, the morally endangered, the industrially exploited, and the delinquent child. A protective law, an understanding and sympathetic judge, a trained probation officer with keen insight, expert institutional care and trained supervision and follow-up are the necessary constituents of a system of correction. The aid of psychiatric and child guidance expert in such systems is indispensable.

Child welfare services, however, can never be made to function in total isolation from family life. Home environment is a factor of crucial importance in child's growth. This environment is primarily determined by the educational and cultural background of the elder members, the interpersonal relationship between them and the adequacy of their economic resources. A Family Social Work agency will concern itself with all these aspects. An inadequate income may often be at the root of unsatisfactory personal relationship between parents which besides making life unhappy for them will give the child a feeling of insecurity. The Family Social Work agency rarely tries to make up for this inadequacy by direct payment but it helps the family to meet certain critical situations and what is more important to develop its potentialities for an increased income through providing educational and vocational facilities.

In this field we are faced with problems which are peculiar to our country. Our society is divided not only by regional and economic considerations but it is stratified and divided by caste and community distinctions. A family social work agency which concerns itself with social and psychological problems is faced with new difficulties which rise out of the tensions between different

social groups. The question also arises as to whether the family social work agency should plan its activities to meet the requirements of single specific community groups. If our various communities and castes are ultimately to be fused into a single nationality our emphasis on smaller loyalties is not likely to be strengthened by progressive forces themselves. This is a point on which the conference of social work needs to give a lead. Another point in this connection which also needs to be emphasised is a need for having technically qualified trained personnel to handle the very difficult problems of interpersonal relationship with which in course of time every family welfare agency is bound to be faced. Today there are hardly a few agencies which even attempt to tackle problems of this nature but it is unfortunate that even these do not have trained persons on their staff.

Not all problems in family life are due to economic inadequacy. There are others which can be traced to ignorance or to certain difficult personality traits. The case worker in a well-developed family social work agency helps persons to get over these difficulties by making the necessary adjustments. At times it is the relationship between the parent and the child that is unsatisfactory. Here again a family social work agency will come in with timely guidance.

Two other important services can be rendered by such an agency namely marriage counselling for the newly married or to be married couples and aid in family planning to all those who appreciate the need for it.

Leaving aside the smaller and at the same time from a comparative stand-point the economically better off community groups the problem of monetary aid to family is too large to be adequately handled by individually endowed charities. If, however, one were to start by accepting this limitation there is good work that a family social work agency

could undertake. A secularly established agency can bring scientific method and greater understanding to the performance of this function. Besides it can undertake the work of the pre-marital counselling and advice on family planning. The middle class and lower middle class income groups are likely specially to benefit from such services.

And even the problem of financial support for such projects should not be the cause of dismay. There is much that we might learn from the organisation of community chests as it exists in America and some of the other countries.

There are certain steps that the State must take and the State alone can take. In the field of family welfare some countries have established precedent by introducing family allowances and children benefits. Australia with its provision for family allowances, United Kingdom with its scheme of national health insurance, Canada with its children benefits and United States with a number of projects for social insurance which followed the New Deal, indicate the manner in which political democracy is sought to be strengthened by an attempt to create a social democracy. With its present economic difficulties our government is not in a position to launch upon such projects of social insurance. At the same time there is urgent need for making available the necessary minima of life to every citizen. It is the responsibility of the state to provide every head of the family with work which will help him to earn an honest living. It is also the responsibility of the state to make available to every citizen amenities for health and recreation. In the long run it is the fulfilment of such responsibilities that will contribute to the growing strength of the country.

It is also the duty which the state owes to its children. Protective legislation for safe-

guarding children against exploitation and danger,—moral, social or economic, is an immediate necessity which must be met. The

state must also help the public to endeavour to establish child caring and training institutions, remand homes; juvenile courts etc.

YOUTH WELFARE

N. F. KAIKOBAD

Youth welfare is a blanket term covering a wide variety of activities and multiplicity of motives. Throughout history the leaders of the Nations have been greatly interested in youths. Their methods of approach has been obviously determined by their basic philosophy. Hence the motives and activities of various countries have been dissimilar.

Now unlike dictatorship, democracy aims to develop in the individual dignity, self-respect, faith and confidence. Unlike dictatorship democracy believes that only in an atmosphere of freedom we can effectively discipline youth, and help him on his way to responsible citizenship.

It is necessary at this stage to define the term 'youth' and examine the characteristics of youth. Let us examine briefly the growth needs of this age period popularly known as 'adolescence' 13 to 19 years of age. 'Adolescence' is the period of storm and stress. It is the time when drives for independence and self-determination are most intense. These may appear as rebelliousness but in fact it is a bid for independence, a demand to participate in life with adults as equals. It is the age when 'self' gathers its force to strike out on its own.

One of the outstanding facts about the adolescent behaviour is that they move about in groups, spontaneous informal groupings of gangs, cliques and crowds practically found in any neighbourhood. One of the aims of youth welfare in a democratic set up is to use these groups in such a way as to promote growth, in a desirable direction. This we may call the educational use of group

experience. Before we can use these groups constructively we need to understand what lies behind this spontaneous drawing together of youths. Here the youth is creating his own world. Any worker in this field of youth welfare has to understand the meaning of this world to the youth before he enters it. Then and then only he can fruitfully effect the group process in a socially desirable way. This age period is struck by its turbulence and is expressive of marked aggression.

Not only the authorities of the adults is challenged but also the values established in the home and society during the childhood. He questions most of common beliefs and out of this emerges his own philosophy of life. Another tendency is to search for the larger objects and ideals and to feel the part of them. No wonder why they so enthusiastically join the students union, social or political sanghas. In proper hands youth group life could become a great tool, for common welfare. A nation can neglect it at its peril.

During this period he has to establish himself as an independent individual capable of managing his own affairs. This is known as emancipation from parental and family ties. He has to establish relationship with the opposite sex, arrive at a solution of love life or marriage. He has to effect an integration of his personality for mature relationship in life. It should be the aim of any youth welfare programme to help to achieve all these things.

When a society sets out to provide for the facilities and to create necessary climate to meet the needs of its youth, it is generally

concerned with his formal education, vocation, marriage and family life. There is a general belief that Social Work besides being ameliorative is essentially an educational process which seeks to enable the individual to develop and make the best use of his own resources. Here we shall restrict ourselves to that part of youth welfare with which many of us are concerned, i.e., the leisure time services which are also known as informal education services. We are all serving the youths in their leisure hours through games, interest groups, clubs, or friendship groups. We have to understand that with a growing contact with other aspects of social work and increasingly with sociology and psychology the philosophy of recreation and leisure time services has undergone a considerable change. In this new light of knowledge camping must be viewed in its total experience. It may provide the opportunity for bringing about social adjustment for learning a new skill, developing a new interest, finding enjoyment and adventure but it is more than any one of these. A programme centered and individual-centered philosophy of education and recreation has grown into experience-centered approach which recognises that the individual has to live in a world in which he must meet and modify situations, in which he must increasingly realise his relationship to all who make the fabric of society. This approach not only demands intelligent self-direction but also an increased awareness of people's inter-relatedness with all their fellow beings. This calls for trained leadership which is capable of understanding and dealing with these relationships. What are the criteria of indices of maturity and understanding that should be looked for in those who function as youth workers.

1. *Training of Youth Workers:* The Philosophy of leisure-time services has been influenced by the fields of sociology and

psychology. As a result there has emerged an approach to the leadership of groups defined as 'Social Group Work.' Training of the Youth workers should be based on the following basic assumptions made by Dr. Grace Coyle, one of the leaders in the field of Social Group Work.

(a) The worker will have a firm conviction of the values, recreational activities can yield both to the society and individual.

(b) The worker should be aware of the two simultaneous streams of activities within his group. On one hand he has to see the progress of the programme and on the other hand he sees the interplay of relationships which make up the group. The latter calls for a capacity to understand the interpersonal relations between the members and the sensitivity to the total group process.

(c) The programme must be seen always in terms of its effect on the individual i.e., the worker will keep person-centered and not activity-centered relationship to the group. The participants and not the activity holds his centre of attention. The worker must constantly ask for himself: "What does this particular activity or experience mean to the participants? How has it promoted self-direction and integration of the group?"

(d) The worker needs to understand the language of the human behaviour. He needs to have skill in handling the factors that block the group process.

(e) The worker must learn to function professionally. He must possess or develop certain capacities such as maturity, objectivity, and insight. By maturity we mean the worker's ability to face realities and accept difficulties and disappointment. In order to do this he must be aware of his own feelings, failings and background as well as his own purposes. Objectivity is the capacity to deal with persons and situations without being judgemental. The Worker should neither reject nor over-identify himself with

a person or situation. In order to function professionally he must have an insight into his own emotions and limitations and to be able to weigh them against the reality.

If the above mentioned basic assumptions are agreed and acted upon by the leisure time organisations, then only they can claim to be making educational or constructive use of the group life of our youth and promote their growth in a desirable direction. These principles are also applicable in the field of adult education.

Method of Training: There is a need for training our youth workers on the above mentioned assumptions. Of course the best way would be to give intensive training through regular courses in order to evolve a common core of knowledge and method.

Various Methods: (1) Basic knowledge of developmental needs of youth—boys and girls and their interests imparted through a series of a carefully planned lectures.

(2) Discussion meetings on various topics of common interest.

(3) Problem conference based upon practical situation suggested by the workers.

(4) Demonstration of group leadership by experienced leaders.

(5) Case studies.

(6) Workshop method: The workers meet with the specialists in particular area of arts and crafts. The workshop method is marked by its absence of routinised lectures or a course. It is a flexible learning situation in which the workers are helped in acquiring particular skill and also learn its values and meaning to the individual and how best it can be utilised in keeping the group together.

(7) Follow up through supervisory conferences.

The term supervision evokes so many different concepts in the minds of the people that it is better to explain at the outset that in social work it is educational process with

a focuss on training on the job and an enrichment of the whole programme by means of this method.

By no means there is anything like watertight compartment between above mentioned methods. The agencies can simultaneously adopt any of these methods in view of their own competence to apply them as well as in view of the fact that it would be the best media at a particular stage of development of their trainees.

Creation of youth council: In order to develop skill and citizenship an intergroup experience is also an essential factor in any programme of youth welfare. An inter-group experience not only will broaden the social horizon of youth but will also provide a better opportunity to learn democratic ways of getting along with the people of different ideas. Through such experiences he will develop skills in human relations and an understanding of the problems that will in future determine the direction of his life.

To bring about co-operation and better understanding between various youth serving agencies as well as the organisations independently managed by the youths themselves (e. g. students union), every town should organise a youth council. The purposes of such a council should be:—

(1) to co-ordinate activities among the youth serving agencies in the town or neighbourhood;

(2) to provide a channel through which young people can join hands in serving the community;

(3) to plan lines of action on which representatives of all youth organisations can work together, i.e. civic education, literary campaign and social action on many immediate problems, e.g. health, communal unity, fighting discrimination etc. This will give experience to young people in dealing with social problems at first hand;

(4) to interpret youths' needs to the com-

munity and to study opportunities for recreation for all;

(5) to plan joint events such as festivals, educational trips, camping, sports, etc.

A special section consisting of specialists on youth problems be created as an advisory unit.

On city-wide level:—Municipalities can play a significant role in youth welfare by providing facilities for youths to assemble and have fun. In American States the Division of Park and Recreation have done quite an admirable piece of work in this direction. It is necessary that every neighbourhood should have a playground and a special play plot for young children with necessary play equipments.

Actually it has been conservatively estimated that there are 10,000 summer camps in the United States and another 2000 in Canada in which the cities and nations younger generation disperse during the vacation. Majority of these camps are privately operated. Boy scouts, girl guides, the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A. and various civic, church and philanthropic organisations maintain their own camps. Every year the American Friends Service Committee organises international seminars in Europe and Mexico in which University students from various countries spend their vacations profitably. Such opportunities help to cut across national and racial barriers and help to find common grounds on which to build strong

international relations. Under the auspices of the same organisation hundreds of students volunteer for work and study projects in work-camps. These young men and women help the rural community centre or help the residence of a fire devastated community to build their public buildings. Thus through such work-camps youths become familiar with social and economic problems of such areas. India too can profitably adopt such a plan.

Youth counselling centre:—While working with groups and thinking in terms of masses we often forget about the people in terms of their being individuals with heart beats, heartaches and problems. Reference is here made to older boys and young women.

Facilities of an up-to-date library, composed of latest vocational and educational literature in provincial languages should be made available at counselling centre. This agency can also help young men dissatisfied in their present occupation and desire a shift in another field of endeavour, by enabling them to appreciate their abilities, and interests and the reasons for their dissatisfaction or failure in their present positions.

Youth commissions:—Many countries have set up Ministries of youth welfare. Our provincial governments should set up youth commissions for studying various youth problems and suggest ways and means to meet them.

THE NEED FOR YOUTH CLUBS.

S. S. DHAWAN

The man-power of a country constitutes one of its most important resources. It is, however, not merely numbers, but the quality of the citizens that determines the prosperity and prestige of the country.

The development of good health, and of sound character—these are the recognized

basic needs. This is no easy task—but it is an essential work, on the success of which will depend the future of the nation. The early years in a person's life are the most impressionable years, and it will be easier to instil into youth a love of real values than to educate and convert an adult with con-

firmed habits (or prejudices). One of the effective methods of doing it will be through training, assisting and educating the children through organised youth clubs.

Youths in various age groups.—Broadly speaking, children can be grouped under three age groups according to their habits, peculiarities and outlook:—

6 to 8 years - Dramatic instinct and make-believe.

8 to 11 years - Self-assertive individuality and rivalry.

11 to 15 years - Hero worship and co-operative loyalty.

It may be taken for granted that boys of 8 to 11 have the following propensities to lie, to be selfish, to be cruel and to be bombastic or pharisaical. But it must be at once recognised that their attributes are not born of malicious designs; they are rather the natural outcome of the peculiar attitude of mind at that age. The qualities shown at these stages may be summarised as follows:—

UPTO 8 YEARS. DRAMATIC	8 TO 11 YEARS. PERSONAL RIVALRY.	OVER 11 YEARS. CO-OPERATION.
Dawning Constructiveness	Individuality.	Constructiveness
Make believe	Constructiveness.	Inventiveness.
Fairy Stories etc.,	Inquisitiveness.	Team games.
Extravagant humours.	Eagerness for new-experiences.	Games with rules
	Absorption in new games.	Discipline.
	Collecting stamps, Scrap etc.	Hero worship
	Romping, Rowdy games.	Romance
	Restlessness (Mental).	Adventure
	Restlessness (Physical).	Active Virtues.
	Cruelty, Thoughtlessness.	Sensitiveness.
	Brave deed Stories.	Dawning conscience etc.
		Sense of paths.
		Sense of human.
		Sense of sympathy.

Before we take up this particular subject in detail it will be useful to study the following diagrams and make the failings

common to the young boy and the useful national deficiencies, their causes and the remedies.

"A" Failings Common to the young boys.	"B" Cause.	"C" Education needed in.	"D" Rowdy games.
Showing off Bragging Shyness Lying.	Inexperience.	Character.	Intelligence & Perseverance. Handicraft.
Mischief Destructiveness Carelessness. Impatience.	Wanting interest or curiosity.		
Disobedience Selfishness Cruelty.	Disregard for others.		Doing things for others.
Awkwardness (for phy- sical development). Remedial physical defects.	Want of knowledge and exercise.	Physical health.	Athletics & Cleanliness.

"A" Usual Nation Inefficiencies.	"B" Causes..	"C" Origin.	"D" Preventive.	"E" Remedy in addition to scholastic Co- Education-A Syste- matic Development of
Irreligion Indiscipline Want of Patriotism Selfishness Disregard for others Cruelty.	Indifference to higher conscience.	Want of Self discipline.	Education in	1. Character through Good environment Sense of humour Sense of duty Self discipline Responsibility Handicrafts Goodthoughts & nature study. Religion in Practice. Fairplay Helpfulness to others. Personal service to the country.
Crime of violence Lunacy. Thoughtlessness & Poverty.	Drinks or Drugs.		Character.	
Show off loafing & Shirking Low moral standards Gambling Illegitimacy Discare	Self Indulgence.	Want of hygienic & physical knowledge.	Physical health.	2. Health through Outdoor practices. Responsibilities for own physical development upto standard. Health & hygiene in practice.
Ill health Squalor Infant Morality Mental deficiency Physical deficiency.	Irresponsibility and ignorance on part of parents.			

If we go through the list in columns A We find a more or less complete list of the usual boy failings and usual national deficiencies. Column B gives the usual causes and Column C the origin. Column "D" is sure to arrest our attention. We find that the prevention for all their ills is the same viz. education in character and physical health.

Need for Proper Training In early years.—All agree that the present authorised scheme of education in the schools in India includes plenty of book work and examination but pay little attention to assisting the children in the development of character. Thousands of boys are being left to drift into the rank of wasters without much attempts to stay them. They receive little training in resourcefulness, chivalry, thrift and citizenship. Unless a concerted and conscious effort is made in training the children along the right lines, the result will be a generation bankrupt of all the essential

virtues, with the result that the taxpayers' prisons and poor relief etc.

For a nation to be great it is imperative that the average citizen, much less, the top ranking few may develop character and sound health. Thus physical health and how to develop it should be as much a part of education as scholarly, scientific or technical attainments.

The huge waste of time and money annually through strikes or lockouts is nothing compared with the waste of time and money that are lost through preventable physical inefficiency and illhealth.

The training in India threofore, need be directed to their two main ends as diagrammatically shown in the tables above. With a given foundation laid thus during the early years, it may be hoped that the subsequent structure may be all the more satisfactory as especially if it forms a part of a progressive system to be continued and maintained during his later training, so that health, and

character will be national virtues instead of being the accomplishment of the few.

Experience of other Countries.—The youth Clubs in many foreign countries are not only financed and sponsored by the churches and private institutions but also by the Governments concerned. Here in India the efforts for the welfare of the youth are negligible. This is all due to the lack of patronage given by the Government. It is high time that this job could be tackled by social associations like Indian Conference of Social Work and other big associations in the country, like Boy Scout movement and Y. M. C. A.

Suggestions for Organisation.—A small sub-Committee may be set up in each Qasba, tehsil, city, district, division and province who should take youth activities in hand, by starting small youth clubs in the areas, which should be entirely run by the social associations, but may be sponsored and aided by the Government. Inter-area competitions may be started to encourage the youth. Even in the very backward areas, a special training camp can be started to train the leaders as well as the boys and they may be encouraged by taking them to bigger camps for training as well as sight seeing etc. Youth problem is a very big item. It cannot

be solved by a few workers. In the first instance we need good social workers to train good leaders and in turn they will do their bit to tackle the problem in their own vicinity and this can only be done if proper attention is paid to run small youth clubs in every town or city which should have the full support and co-operation of the authorities.

Activities of the club.

- (1) Training in leadership.
- (2) Individual attention.
- (3) Personal example.
- (4) Encouraging acceptance of responsibility.
- (5) Team work and co-operative efforts, traditions and loyalty (most-essential).
- (6) Outing and camping.
- (7) Social gathering and social service.
- (8) Hiking, mountaineering and snow climbing.
- (9) Games and competition (Inter school, Inter District, Inter area, Inter divisional, Inter provincial).
- (10) All India Rallies and Jamborees.

In view of the national importance of the Youth Welfare, a separate division on Youth Welfare either in the Government Department or in an All-India Social Work Organisation is necessary.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE THIRD ANNUAL SESSION

Section II : Family, Child and Youth Welfare:

Chairman : Mrs. Hannah Sen

Secretary : Mrs. I. Renu

Recorder: Mr. N. F. Kaikobad

This Conference offers the following suggestions in the field of Family, Child and Youth Welfare, with a view to improving and extending the existing services in the field and thereby help the children and the youth of this country to develop to the best of their capacity and contribute their share

to the wellbeing of the country.

1. That Family Welfare Agencies be started to guide and assist the family in matters of budgeting health and in problems of emotional adjustment, and thereby contribute to the stability of the family which in turn would affect the child. The approach should be to the family as a unit rather than to the child as an individual.

2. That there be adequate facilities for the spreading of information on child development and care. Literature in regional languages on this subject should be made

available so as to remove the existing ignorance.

3. That better health facilities for the family be arranged by providing visiting nurses and improving the hospital services.

4. That the present facilities for recreation in schools as well as in other institutions be extended and improved.

5. That private agencies aided by the Government undertake to provide for the education and the rehabilitation of the mentally, physically and socially handicapped child.

6. That a common philosophy and a common method be evolved in the area of youth welfare and for training leaders based

on democratic principles. Special training camps be established for youth leaders and citizenship courses be introduced in schools.

7. That facilities for vocational guidance be immediately taken in hand in urban areas and popular literature on vocational possibilities be made available.

8. That there be a survey of youth needs at provincial levels, and that Provincial Governments take necessary measures to further youth welfare schemes, by appointing Youth Commissions for this purpose.

9. That in the interests of better co-ordination and greater efficiency continued effort be made to amalgamate the Hindustan Scout Association, the B. P. Scout Association and the Girl Guides Association.

COORDINATION OF SOCIAL WORK

DR. RADHAKAMAL MUKERJEE

India's independence in the wake of the world war and economic breakdown and shortage of both global and local production have brought to the fore new problems of poverty, malnutrition, relief and rehabilitation. These have focussed more than ever the need of new programmes of social services and their co-ordination. Co-ordination is first in the determination of priorities in programmes. In the face of considerable shortage of food, cloth and other necessities, rationing and control carefully adjusted to supply must be regarded as of first priority for quite a few years to come, if corruption and black market were to be successfully eliminated and a fair deal meted out to the have-nots.

Refugee Rehabilitation:—The partition of India and the repercussions which followed have produced the intractable problem of social and economic assimilation of 12 million refugees in India. Refugee rehabilitation today challenges the effective methods and techniques of social work in the country.

Apart from planned population distribution and finding out jobs and occupations appropriate for different social and economic levels of the refugees the problem is that of reviving their morale and combating uncertainty and anxiety about role and status. The effective plan is experiment of group or community settlements, selfsufficient with schools, dispensaries and cooperative industrial and farming units. Important lessons may be derived from the methods of colonization of the hundreds of Jewish refugees.

Adult Education:—The new political set up creates its own difficult problems. Adult franchise without adult education may bring about social confusion or unsettlement. This will require the early establishment of a few peoples schools or colleges like those of Denmark, training teachers for the liquidation of adult illiteracy and rural reconstruction in general, utilising modern methods of radio and visual education through talks, films, lantern slides and posters.

For a country-wide drive for adult edu-

cation and organisation of cooperatives a scheme of conscription of all university students in India for at least three months for social services should be enforced.

Welfare problems in industrial cities:—As industrialisation spreads and cities become larger and larger, new problems of congestion, disparity of sex proportions, immorality, disease, unemployment and pauperism crop up on a vast scale. Physical, moral, and social deterioration on a mass scale makes older methods of charity and personal ministration anachronistic and calls for a new social education and conscience.

The strategy of social work consists not only in determining the right order of priorities and the scope of philanthropy and institutional care vis-a-vis private charity and prevention vis-a-vis cure, but also in devising suitable social welfare legislation. No legislation, again, in any field can succeed without voluntary social service agencies backing it up. Legislative measures and voluntary social service agencies must aid each other.

As important as legislation and the effort of the voluntary service agencies in particular fields is research in respect of the causation of the social maladjustment, misfits and abnormalities.

The central figure in the whole programme is the trained, professional social worker. In India he has hardly emerged on the social scene. Social work has today progressed from relief of destitution and suffering to 'rehabilitation' and personality adjustment depending upon systematic vocational, medical and psychological treatment. And yet in dealing with the definitely expanded and complex social services, we have advanced in this country very little in respect of special scientific training and professionalisation of personnel and refinement of techniques and methods of specialised social services.

Each social welfare programme is linked with the other and thus the need of co-ordi-

nation of the various present social welfare activities and agencies is paramount. In the U.S.A. every big city has its joint council of social work and its own community chest from which funds are distributed to the various agencies. The community chest fund comprises the largest proportion of the social work budget. In India we should introduce "campaign method" and the "community Chest" as far more appropriate than the ancient system of raising money by theatricals, foot-ball matches, dances, and the like and distribute the funds among the various social service institutions and agencies. Today the Indian Red Cross Society in the different provinces coordinates the activities of various health services and distributes funds. In the Province of Madras the guild of service has also organised charitable effort and co-ordination of welfare agencies. In the city of Bombay the Parsi charity trusts are shining example of co-ordination in respect of poor relief, education, family rehabilitation and welfare work.

Every dark spot or festering sore in society needs the full glare of community opinion, state legislation and voluntary service. No problem of social disorganisation can successfully be tackled without three agencies co-operating co-operatively—an alert and sensitive social consciousness of the people, wise and farsighted laws and administrative measures and preventive and ameliorative work by social service institutions.

Social and economic maladjustment, unemployment, feeble-mindedness, and physical inadequacy all are contributing to swell the ranks of the homeless, the helpless and the hapless in cities and towns. If India has accepted the programme of industrialisation she has to deal with problems that arise in its wake in modern times. According to modern methods and techniques of social service neither spontaneous charity and personal administration can be relied upon for grappling with mass phenomena, nor can an indivi-

dual undertake to accomplish what institutions can do for both prevention and treatment of inadequacies and deviations.

In every advanced community the state today guarantees certain social and economic rights to safeguard human dignity and fulfilment of basic human needs every where threatened by industrialism with its inequitable distribution of benefits and hazards which goes against the modern social conscience. Social justice to the common man and harmony of economic progress equally demand the enforceability of such rights instead of these being regarded as mere directives of governmental policy. Social Welfare programmes depend for their success ultimately on the dignity of the common man appreciated by the people and guaranteed by the state.

The peasant state, the police state and the laissez faire state have today all become anachronisms and India is building up a new social security state. If this social service state is to be not merely a dream of idealists,

there should be an overall social security plan and a ministry of social welfare, both at the centre and the provinces for guiding social welfare legislation and the co-ordination of voluntary social services with the work of social security state departments. India at present is far distant from employment and income security. A social security plan is just being envisaged by the government and put into operation here and there in a very limited manner. Obviously the long distance from income-security makes it essential that welfare services have to fill the gap where insurance benefits, pensions, allowances, and other forms of assistance are not available. As India replaces her mixed economy by planned economy and develops a new socio-political structure, her orderly social and economic progress will require new institutions and organisations of social work. But the change in the pattern as well as policy and technique of social welfare is not possible without a change in the habits, outlooks and sensitiveness of the people.

CO-ORDINATION OF SOCIAL WORK—ITS POSSIBILITIES AND DIFFICULTIES

DR. EDWARD C. LINDEMAN

The word 'co-ordination' which has become so popular in social work circles in recent years has been borrowed from the science of mathematics. The very utterance of the phrase 'coordination in social work' leaves us with a sense of pleasure and achievement. Not all of those who fondly use the word 'co-ordination' will be found among the actual 'coordinators'. For, the act of co-ordination in human affairs is one of the most difficult functions we are ever called upon to perform. This is true of the individuals as well as of groups and nations.

The challenge of coordination comes as a threat to autonomy, to sovereignty. When

ten independent social agencies or institutions are asked to merge their separate activities into one correlated whole there will be ten groups of persons who will at that instant feel a sense of loss, of deprivation. Each of these ten separate groups has either consciously or unconsciously developed a vested interest in that phrase of the social problem which its agency has taken as a province. Each will feel at that moment a sense of lost identification, sacrificed prestige.

I have now mentioned two difficulties involved in the search for coordination in social work, both psychological in nature, one deriving from linguistics and the subtle

way in which words condition our behaviour and the other deriving from our instinctive response to preserve autonomy. A third difficulty resides in the fact that so large a portion of social work performed by private agencies has in the past originated in religious organisations. And here we encounter a mixture of motivations which is extremely difficult to disentangle. How can we expect social agencies operating under religious bodies which they represent function in isolation or even in opposition?

One further difficulty deserves to be mentioned and this one, although related, is of a different order. The verb 'to co-ordinate' means that all involved agencies and institutions will from this moment onward be required to reveal publicly their modes of operations, their financial resources, the salaries they pay their employees, and the general conception they hold of their mission and function. Both the technical and philosophical foundations upon which each separate agency rests will now be exposed to public view. What has hitherto been private now becomes public. When coordination begins those agencies which have subsisted upon dubious practices and standards will now be brought into functional relationship with agencies in which high standards are insisted upon. In the early stage of co-ordination we often find ourselves confronted with crucial questions. Should low-standard agencies be abolished? If so who will suffer? It is always feasible to bring low-standard agencies to higher standard and at what rate of speed should this process be demanded? Is it advisable to tolerate low standards on the ground that any service is better than one service at all?

Coordination in social work is likely to assume three new forms of social organisation, namely: (a) coordinated fund raising, (b) coordinated functioning, and (c) co-ordinated use of volunteers. In the United

States which incidentally should not always be taken as a model to be followed the first of these new social forms goes by the name of Community Chest, the second, Community Councils of Social Agencies, and the third Volunteer Bureaus. A fourth form is now emerging in the nature of Neighbourhood and Community Councils in which citizens and professionals collaborate in discovering needs, marshalling resources and social planning. Perhaps a simple definition of each of these types of social organisation will add a clarifying note.

A Community Chest: is a concerted plan for soliciting funds from the public for the budgetary needs of all member agencies. Once each year in each community which supports a community chest there will occur a concentrated campaign. This method of securing funds for the work of voluntary social agencies has now become so common in the United States that it includes nearly all cities. It will be seen at once that it represents not only an efficient method for securing funds but also a most effective way of interpreting social work to the entire community.

Council of Social Agencies: is an organisation, representing usually all agencies involved in joint fund raising. It is essentially a social planning instrument. Its aim is to increase the efficiency of all member agencies by elevating standards, by eliminating overlapping or duplicating services and by evolving collaboration between related agencies. No agency may remain as a council member unless it adheres to certain standards. A new agency will be admitted only if it is determined that a genuine need for its services exists. Most councils maintain research divisions which are continually at work studying the needs of the community and its resources. Funds for sustaining the work of these councils are derived from the community chests.

Volunteer Bureau: is a central agency for the purpose of recruiting, training and placing volunteers who wish to engage in the welfare work. A central index is maintained where volunteers are registered. Any member agency desiring volunteers makes its request to the Bureau and the Bureau in turn makes assignments. There is thus created a reservoir of volunteers from which all member agencies may draw according to their requirements. It appears from records available that approximately 30 million persons in the United States may be counted as volunteers. It should be noted that in the United States a very sharp distinction is made between a volunteer and a professional. The former do very important work, but it is not to be confused with the work performed by trained social work volunteers who are allies or partners of the professionals, never competitors.

The fourth type of coordination namely Neighbourhood and Community Councils of one sort or another—and true to the American devotion to diversity—there are many types—is a form of social organisation, which was revived after the late war. During the war many citizens had come for the first time concerned about the immediate localities where they lived. They were engaged in one form or another of war service and in this activity they had discovered a civic sense of responsibility. In addition they had experienced a new kind of satisfaction through co-operative endeavours. When the war was over they naturally asked themselves why they should not continue these efforts on behalf of the ends of Peace.

In smaller communities these councils of citizens and professional workers all belong to the same unit. In some larger cities there are numerous Neighbourhood Councils which are, in turn, integrated with a dele-

gate body which represents the entire community.

It is not at all certain that any of these American inventions are suitable for detailed adaptation in other cultures. It is disturbing to note the tendency of one society to imitate or copy or borrow its social forms from another. On the other hand there is no reason why certain elements of one culture may not be utilized as the source of experimentalism in another society. Thus it seems Indian citizens and social workers who are eager to bring about a higher level of efficiency in the realm of social welfare might discover in the American experience certain basic ideas which might thereafter be adapted to Indian conditions.

In conclusion, it should be emphasised that the demand for coordination in social services comes from at least three sources: (a) the interdependence and complexity of modern societies is such that no social problem can be solved through fractional approaches; to be interested in a child and not at the same time be concerned about his family and his school is to make child an isolated abstraction; (b) in the second place co-ordination is needed in order to demonstrate to citizens especially contributors that the cost is not out of proportion to the actual services rendered; and (c) in the third place welfare workers may be expected especially if they live in a democratic society to give a demonstration of co-operative behaviour. It would be an anomaly—would it not—if it were revealed that the very persons who promote the general welfare should turn out to be persons incapable of cooperative conduct.

The demand for co-ordination in social work arises from technical, economic and sociological sources and may therefore be regarded as a valid voice which deserves to be heeded.

CO-ORDINATION OF SOCIAL WORK

DR. B. H. MEHTA

India is one of the oldest countries in the world. Sociologically, from ancient times, Societies and Community have evolved in multiple patterns in terms of social forces, economic and political conditions, and development of communications. Aboriginal tribes and village communities organised their welfare efforts according to the principle of mutual aid. Feudal society gave birth to religious, caste and sectarian philanthropy. Hindu and Muslim rulers and successive rulers and conquerors dealt with social problems according to their light and ability. The British Government created social services to remedy the wrongs created by their methods of political domination and economic exploitation, or to cover up the ulcers on the Indian body from the gaze of the world. The development of trade and commerce and the beginning of the industrial revolution created social disease and disorganisation which required private and public effort to create tolerable living standards. The battle for political freedom created forces, leadership and parties that felt the need of organised effort together with political and economic action.

Thus over a period of hundreds of years, India has evolved community social services, religious and sectarian services, remedies organised by private philanthropy and social services organised by private, municipal, provincial and state agencies. Being a physically large country, the territorial divisions have added to the multiplicity of social welfare efforts.

All the above types of social welfare functioned without high ideals, clear objectives, efficient organisation, adequate resources and qualified leadership. Evidently the results and achievements were neither adequate nor spectacular, and on the whole

conditions deteriorated completely under British rule, the development of industries and urbanism, and feudal exploitation and neglect of communities in the villages.

The birth of freedom has naturally brought out all the evils to the fore. Conditions created by the political settlement have created vast social problems. The quasi-political consciousness of the masses has created the need of quick and effective remedies for many social ills.

All these require not only the wealth, but also the leadership, organisation and resources to achieve quick results. As leadership and resources are both limited and as the country has to grow up according to Gandhian principles, all existing materials have got to be used, and besides, new leadership and more efforts have to come into existence.

In the midst of the complex, multiple and varied development of social welfare efforts in India, one important fundamental has emerged. This is not only a national development but also a world phenomenon. The state now emerges as charged with the major responsibility for the complete welfare of all human beings, families and communities. Besides, the functions of the State are now to be efficiently and sociologically distributed between the National, State (Provincial) and Municipal Governments. Thus plans of social welfare can now grow up in well defined areas—national, federal, provincial and local.

Private, sectional and sectarian agencies have got to mould themselves and fit themselves into the large pattern of social services created by the State. This has to happen in a spirit of co-operation and comradeship as a result of a proper understanding of social problems and their correct and effective solutions.

The major fields of social work in India are vast, clear and well defined. These are:

- (a) The problem of poverty to be dealt within terms of problems of the individual, the family and the community.
- (b) Women and children welfare to deal with the problem of human fitness at the roots.
- (c) Physical fitness, health and housing—as these are the roots of incompetence and ill health of the masses.
- (d) Youth welfare and education, as these are the main reservoirs for national regeneration.
- (e) Community organisation and development, including all the social services coordinated at the lowest regional unit to cut across the undesirable caste and sectarian units, and to play its part on account of lack of national and other resources for adequate social insurance, family services and scope for case work.
- (f) The treatment of socially underprivileged or under-developed, or socially handicapped human groups, like rural and urban labour communities, the refugees, the Harijans, and the aboriginal tribes as without the betterment of their conditions and the removal of the disabilities of millions of people, there can be no national regeneration.

The planning and organisation of such a vast programme of social service requires right social legislation; a proper grasp of ideas; leadership with ideas and ability for action and effective trained executive leadership; proper institutions, organisations and associations; adequate financial and material resources; systematic supervision and evaluation of achievement.

To carry out all these, co-ordination is the first and most effective step.

Firstly, co-ordination is required between the Ministries' departments and the branches of the State itself. As India learns administration, she will realise the need of well defined functions for each ministry and each department and division of a ministry on the national, federal and state level. Likewise the need of co-operation and co-ordination of State (Provincial) and Municipal and District Board departments.

Secondly, there is the need of co-ordination between private agencies be they religious or secular, be they national, provincial or local in scope.

Thirdly, there is the need of co-ordination between public and private social welfare effort.

Fourthly, there is the need of co-ordination of efforts and functions at the lowest levels to secure maximum use of effective leadership at lowest cost with minimum use of resources.

The problem is vast and difficult and is more so in a democratic country with a divergent pattern of culture and communities, which though apart, are really members of a great and comprehensive whole.

Efforts at co-ordination will have to begin simultaneously at various levels. Each effort at co-ordination will need a wise and tolerant leadership. For example, there is the need to co-ordinate the efforts of private agencies, eventually creating central bodies for amassing and distribution of resources (like the Community Chest), and for co-ordinating efforts at executive levels through Councils of Social Service Agencies which should federate at local, state and national levels.

Likewise, in the cities and similar regional units, there is the need of co-ordination of organisations with functional similarities like organisations working for child welfare, youth welfare, community development and

welfare of sectional groups like, Industrial Labour, Harijans, etc.

Meanwhile, the co-ordination of efforts at Government and Municipal levels will have to be done by the authorities themselves. At present, there are welfare functions in each of the Ministries. It is possible to link these and free the various Ministries of their welfare duties by creating a Ministry of Public Welfare. It is impossible to create a Welfare State without the existence of Ministries or Departments of Public Welfare on the national, state and municipal levels. India will have eventually to plan the various social insurances for health, employment, family securities and protection of the aged and the disabled. All these will require the co-ordinated efforts of national, federal, state and municipal administrations.

Beginnings of co-ordination are not going to prove easy. Lack of understanding, sectional interests, desire to promote interests without the consideration of others and more important interests, communal and caste considerations, desire to control finance and exercise authority and competition for publicity are well known handicaps known to all countries in the early stages of undeveloped social services. These obstacles will have to be faced by patient and wise leadership and success is bound to follow after many inevitable failures.

The Indian Conference of Social Work has to determine what measures to adopt, what legislation to suggest, what publicity to undertake and what organisation to create which will speed up the process of co-ordination. At present there is a need to create small but efficient spheres of contact and cooperation leading to the formation of several nuclei around which, eventually, the various social organisations will develop to render effective service at a minimum cost without a waste of efforts, funds and equipment.

Suggested Approach.—The fields of social work are so many, and the problems of co-ordination are so varied, that it is suggested that in the first instance, the Indian Conference of Social Work should handle these problems where co-ordination will be more easily achieved by co-operative efforts.

A beginning should be made with the National Government and States which are conscious of the need of well organised social services should be handled simultaneously. In important cities a local beginning should be made to improve local welfare services.

Besides, efforts should be made to co-ordinate the private and public welfare services dealing with the following subjects:

1. Physical Fitness and Physical Welfare.
2. Child and Woman's Welfare.
3. Youth Welfare.

India has not yet used the term 'Physical Fitness' as extensively as it is used in the West to include all programmes for the maintenance and promotion of good health including health education. This programme is better organised by a Public Welfare Ministry, as the departments of the Ministry of Health have extensive programmes dealing with the curative side of health and the medical services.

1. The physical fitness problem should be dealt with at present by the Indian Conference of Social Work till it becomes possible to create a National Association for physical fitness co-ordinating the activities of the national, federal and state divisions of physical fitness and other programmes of community and Youth Physical Fitness and Recreations linking up with the activities of playground organisations, athletic and olympic associations, Municipal parks and playground organisations, gymnasiums, Akhadas, physical education departments of the Education Ministry, and physical welfare programmes of

industrial workers under the Ministry of Labour and private employers.

2. Activities dealing with Child Welfare likewise need to be co-ordinated under a National Bureau of Child Welfare co-ordinating the activities of the Department of Child Welfare, of the Ministry of Health at the Centre and the States and linking up with the programmes of infant and child welfare societies and the clinics, organisations dealing with handicapped children like the mentally defectives, cripples, and juvenile delinquents and organised day nurseries of all kinds.

3. Youth Welfare services should be co-ordinated by bringing together the youth

organisation of the political parties, the students' federations, the Scout movements, the various volunteers' movements, the Y.M. C.A., and other similar youth organisations. There is an urgent need of a Department of Youth Welfare under the Department of Public Welfare under the national and state levels to bring about the co-ordination.

It is also desirable to bring about at least a co-operation if not the co-ordination of private charity Trusts and Endowments and private social service agencies by organising councils of social service agencies in each city eventually federating with State and National Councils of Social Service Agencies.

CO-ORDINATION OF SOCIAL WORK

SAPUR FAREDUN DESAI

A resume of co-ordination achieved by Parsi Trusts in Bombay:—The Parsi community is to be mainly found in the province of Bombay, and more than 50 per cent of them live in the city proper. It would not be an exaggeration to say that being a small and more or less compact community the Parsis have had their institutions well-organised. From the very early times the Parsis began to organise themselves in the social sphere. Their present organisation known as the Parsi Panchayat dates back its origin to more than 250 years ago and today it stands as the largest single socio-religious organisation of the community, looked upon by the Parsis of Bombay and even mofussil as their own institution. Its main function at present is to maintain and manage funds specially established for religious and charitable purposes to ameliorate the condition of poor Parsis in general and to do all other acts and things which generally relate to the welfare of the Parsi community. Today there are 251 Parsi Charity Trusts but most of them have a religious objective. Funds purely

meant for charity relief are about 70-75. They are of comparatively recent origin. Their combined income may be about six to eight lakhs of Rupees and all that is being spent every year. The relief may consist of subsistence or maintenance allowance and help for various other purposes such as rent arrears, education, medical relief, sundry help etc.

During the second decade of this century there was a constant demand for organising charities along sound lines. The first attempt at coordination of charities amongst Parsis was made in the early twenties when a society known as the Parsis Charity Organisation Society was started. For the first few years the society merely received references for several funds to investigate into the fitness of cases applying for help to the referral source. The enquiry showed a need for the creation of a Central Register where all the information of recipients of relief could be maintained and supplied to any fund that needed it.

The first Phase

General register and educational coordi-

nation:—Consequently in the early thirties the Parsi Panchayat started the General Register wherein various funds were requested to cooperate and help pool all the information about each family. That was the beginning of a central effort at pooling the resources of the community. Today the Parsi Panchayat holds information about 7,300 families or about 35,000 persons. The information collected is confidentially supplied to other funds whenever required. The practice of some people to get help from various funds without revealing the fact about the help received from other sources made it necessary for closer co-operation between funds and in 1935 with a preliminary conference of few funds co-ordination was established from nine to 19 funds for post-matriculate education. This had the germ of coordination and future expansion. A little later the idea was extended to foreign education. This saw the formation of post-matriculate education and foreign education coordination committees.

Colonies and Welfare Centres:—In order to relieve congestion and to provide healthy accommodation to the poor, the Panchayat undertook erecting buildings and two modern colonies with facilities for concentrated welfare work sprang up at Tardeo. In this a number of funds and philanthropic individuals participated, mostly the latter. Later another colony sprang up in the same area sponsored by the Sir Ratan Tata Trust. In these three colonies more than 500 families are accommodated. There are recreation centres, places of industrial occupation of the unemployed and the unemployable, a health centre, a hostel for college students, a nursery school, a full-fledged school and such other things that go to make an ideal centre for welfare work amongst the poor. In fact welfare units are operating in these areas and some good work is being done.

Consolidation of help:—In order to

relieve a poor family from having to go to three or four different trusts to receive its stipend every month a sort of consolidation scheme was started by the Parsi Panchayat in 1936. The idea was to consolidate all help received by a family and to give it to the family from one fund only. In future also a family will receive any kind of help from that fund only. The burden on charities was equally distributed. This however did not work well. Later in 1946 it was partially attempted again with regard to help for maintenance and it is working in a moderate way. The fundamental ideal of saving the morale of the party by not allowing him or her to go from fund to fund for dribblets of help remains far from being achieved.

The Second phase:—In the year 1945 the Trustees of the Parsi panchayat again called a conference of Parsi Charity Trusts wherein 33 trusts participated and nearly a dozen *ad hoc* committees were formed to consider a number of problems. This rally of trusts ended up in some good results as can be seen from what follows.

Liaison Committee:—The charity organisation society referred to above, which had done some useful work for more than a quarter of a century was deemed to need revitalisation and reorientation. A committee known as the Liaison Committee for charity organisation was formed under the aegis of 18 Trusts. The Committee employed a number of trained and experienced welfare workers to work in collaboration with the charity organisation society. Thus scientific family case work which was started by the Parsi Panchayat by the end of 1940 was continued by the Liaison Committee and rehabilitation work of families on relief was undertaken. The Committee is well on its way to achieve uniformity in treatment of cases,

Employment Bureau:—The Employment Bureau in charge of the Parsi Panchayat since 1935 was reconstructed and renamed Central Employment Bureau wherein all the funds participate in referring their unemployed able-bodied recipients on relief and their dependants.

Vocational Guidance Bureau:—The Parsi Panchayat started in 1947 a vocational guidance bureau to carry out vocational and educational guidance of young boys and girls about to leave the school and of the unemployed upto the age of 35 registering themselves for jobs with the Central Employment Bureau.

Health Unit:—The Parsi Panchayat started a health project known as 'Parsi Panchayat Health Unit' with the active cooperation of a number of funds. The unit caters for the health of poor Parsis in Bombay and besides general medical department, there are departments like dental, ear, nose and throat and pathological. There is also a clinic for the welfare of mother and child where ante-natal and post-natal treatment and advice are being given. There is also a radiological department which has for its aim mass radioscopy of school children and X-ray and other therapeutic treatment of all patients needing such treatment.

Food Front:—In 1946 when famine was stalking the country the Parsi Panchayat started a food front which did useful work

until the famine conditions disappeared and the front was dissolved. The Committee responsible for the idea of food front also undertook a nutritional survey of school children. It may be stated here that a dozen charity and semi-charity schools in Bombay feed about 4000 children.

Central Board of Education:—A plan for the establishment of a central board of education to coordinate school education is under the contemplation and if schools see their way to cooperate such a board might come into existence in the near future.

Nursery Schools:—In 1942 the Parsi Panchayat started a Nursery School. Recently the Panchayat started two more such schools in two different colonies. There are yet two other schools of the nursery type not directly under the Panchayat. Thus there are about five such schools scattered over Bombay and all this is again possible because of coordination of several trusts and their willingness to lend financial support to such ameliorative measures.

Contemplated Federation of Charities:—The Charity Resources Pooling and Planning Committee (1945) had suggested the creation of an organisation known as the Federated Charities Reconstruction Administration. This body will form the secretariat of the coordinating charities and will control and direct all the charity-sponsored activities.

PART II

A suggestion for possible coordination between Hindu Trusts in Bombay:—In the province of Bombay there were registered at the end of March 1947, 1499 Trusts with a total corpus of Rs. 8.5 crores. This does not include Trusts registered under the Charitable and Religious Trusts Act, 1920, the Mussalman Wakf Act 1923 (amended 1935) and the Parsi Public Trusts Registra-

tion Act 1936. It is not known what Christian or Catholic Trusts exist but there seems to be no Act on the subject. If we take the corpus of all these Trusts put together it runs into an extremely large figure.

In a scheme of total organised welfare of the community we are concerned with all the above trusts except those that are purely meant for religious worship, temples

etc. Barring that, we have 1132 Trusts which is not a small number and it should be the conscious attempt of the government to bring them together. Majority of these Trusts are to be found in Bombay City. The following combinations may be tried out:—

(1) Sadavrats and Annakhshetras, caste dinners, Dharmasalas, Feeding of Brahmins etc. feeding of animals and birds

(2) Advancement of Education, Library and reading rooms

(3) Medical relief, sanatoria

(4) Relief from Poverty.

The first combination deals with feeding and housing, the second with education, the third with health and the fourth with poverty. We do not know what Trusts are included under 'general' classification but if these Trusts have no definite aims, their aims may be defined by a reference to court or if they have multiple aims these Trusts may go with those blocs where their part aims are identical, for instance, housing, education, health or poverty. In that case the Trusts may have to join more than one bloc.

First of all the Trusts must have uniform methods of treating its clients and as such there must be uniformity of application forms covering all family particulars of the client and the income. For finding the eligibility of the client to the specific relief applied for there must be a uniform method of

judgment. For that a body like the liaison committee or the education committee as the case may be must be empowered to report and recommend as is being done by Parsis. Such a recommendation can be conveyed to the central administrative body of the 'bloc' in question and the application thus disposed of. The question of giving relief is of next importance. Whether such a relief is to come from the pooled resources at the disposal of the administrative body or whether it is to be allocated to separate Trusts according to their intake ability needs consideration. The composition of a central body would be rather clumsy if it is to follow the basis of corpus amount pooled. If there is a clause providing one crore of rupees as qualification to send one representative the number of representatives will automatically be small. Those under one crore may have option to combine upto the value of one crore and appoint a representative jointly. The conclusion in this kind of scheme is obvious. We work for the maximum good of the maximum number. There will be uniformity of method in judgment and treatment of cases. As regards investigation and follow up work on sound systematic lines graduates of the schools of social work in Bombay and Delhi are available. If the Bombay State can make this idea a success it will act as a torch bearer to other States in respect of their Social Welfare.

COORDINATION OF SOCIAL WORK—ITS POSSIBILITIES AND DIFFICULTIES

MRS. MARY CLUBWALLA & VENKATARAMAN

Advanced countries like America and England have demonstrated that social work of different categories can be successfully co-ordinated and social work thereby can be rendered more efficient avoiding duplication and overlapping. India in her new set up may well consider whether coordination of

social services on the American or English model will be for the good of the community as a whole.

It will be readily agreed that there is an imperative need for the co-ordination of social services in India. Agencies engaged in social work suffer from several drawbacks

which require to be set right in the interest of social efficiency and economy. Duplication and overlapping, narrow exclusiveness, lack of resources in men and money, want of specialised and properly trained personnel are some of the defects from which social service agencies in India suffer. All these defects can be rectified and the social service agencies rendered more efficient if an attempt is made to coordinate the activities of such agencies on proper lines without interfering with the autonomy and freedom of the affiliating social agencies. The object of such coordination is the maximum utilisation of the man power and the material resources of the affiliating agencies for the greatest good of the country.

Concepts of Coordination.—It is necessary at the outset to bear in mind the following basic concepts of coordination.

(1) Collection of complete and full information about the several social service agencies;

(2) a correct appreciation of status and position of voluntary agencies—need to encourage them and their workers;

(3) promotion of healthy and beneficial relationship among the affiliated social service agencies;

(4) observance of strict neutrality—consultation, interview, consent by agreement, non-interference with the internal autonomy of the affiliating body;

(5) maintenance of an exchange register of the social service agencies and their beneficiaries, so that steps may be taken to avoid overlapping of functions and cash;

(6) a systematic survey of the social needs of the community to find out any possible and important unmet needs so that steps may be taken to meet them;

(7) emphasising points of agreement in the case of denominational institutions and working in co-operation with them without interfering with their internal autonomy;

(8) a knowledge of the facilities that social service agencies have for carrying on their work paid staff and trained workers, premises for the office, office hours, office furniture and other resources;

(9) statistics relating to the number of social workers, full time and honorary, with their qualification, experience and emoluments;

(10) ascertaining whether the Association is registered under the Societies Registration Act and whether it publishes its annual reports with the audited statement of accounts, assets and liabilities; and

(11) the fixing of the minimum standard for co-ordination as the activities of several social service agencies may not be effectively co-ordinated.

Methods of Co-ordination.—Co-ordination of the activities of social services can be achieved through several methods.

(1) The formation of coordination councils as in America consisting of representatives of agencies engaged in different fields of social work. Formation of sub-committees of representatives engaged in the same kind of work such as youth welfare, women's welfare etc.

(2) Providing office accommodation to young and less prosperous institutions by agencies which are in a position to render that kind of help;

(3) Lending the services of their staff honorarily, office equipment etc. like typewriter and furniture for such young and needy institutions.

(4) By offering them friendly and helpful advice with a view to utilising the man power and material resources to the maximum extent possible by coordination of their activities.

Guild of service (Madras): Its attempts at Coordination.—The Guild of Service (Seva Samajam), Madras, has been trying to coordinate the activities of social service

agencies in the city of Madras. The guild consists of representatives of affiliating agencies like women's agencies, youth association, religious bodies, government representatives of government agencies and other individuals and specialists. Membership is voluntary. Over 70 institutions that are and have been carrying on social welfare work in the city have joined the Guild of Service.

Members of the guild discuss at their meetings problems of common interest. These *Ad hoc* committees after discussion make several suggestions for co-ordinating their activities or for their co-operation in a joint endeavour. Individual members noted for their expert knowledge and experience in a particular field of Social Service are also invited to join these *Ad hoc* committees besides government officials in charge of government institutions. Representatives of the affiliated voluntary social service agencies serving on these committees are given opportunity to acquaint themselves with the methods of work of other institutions and profit by their experience.

Wherever the activities of the Guild of Service and the All-India bodies like the Servants of India Society, Red Cross and All India Women's Conference were similar in character the All India bodies gave their fullest co-operation. It must be admitted that the co-ordination of social services in Madras by the guild of services is not yet complete nor is it yet scientifically evolved.

Financing Affiliating Agencies.—Financing the affiliating agencies is a vital feature of co-ordination of social service activities in America. The Guild of Service has been financing the affiliated agencies in the following manner. At the meeting of the Guild the affiliating agencies place their requirements and if the guild is satisfied after an inquiry into the needs of that agency it appeals for funds from its members. Otherwise, the Guild arranges for a Flag day, or

a variety entertainment or a Cabaret. The money realised from these programmes are distributed to agencies in need of help according to their requirements. The Machinery for financing affiliating agencies by the guild of services requires to be put on a more efficient and organised basis. The community chest idea has to be popularised though at first it may meet with some opposition. The scheme may have to be modified to suit Indian conditions.

The Provincial Welfare Fund.—In addition to the guild of service there is another organisation called the provincial welfare fund from which substantial grants are given for medical and hospital work for improving medical and hospital facilities for patients. Its scope being limited, its funds are not available for other social service agencies in the province.

Long Established Institutions.—Long established social service institutions which have built up resources and endowments and have a record of good work to their credit have an important part to play in co-ordinating the activities of younger and smaller social service agencies.

Long established institutions may help the younger and less prosperous institutions to maintain their efficiency and permanency and continuity by lending the services of their experienced workers gratis or charging a nominal fee for their services.

Coordination of social work in India is a new idea. While communal, religious and parochial considerations may militate against such coordination it is quite possible by careful propaganda and no less than by practical working of the idea of co-ordination to bring about the co-ordination of several organisations whether they are communal, religious or parochial. Care should be taken not to offend the sentiments of an organisation however unreasonable it may appear to be. Unity in essentials and

charity in non-essentials must be the watchword in any attempt to co-ordinate the activities of social services in India. The fears and suspicions of affiliating bodies can be dispelled only when the co-ordination body persists in its good work and gives proof of its sincerity, impartiality and high idealism and thus win the confidence of every affiliating body. When this is achieved even those institutions which keep aloof will be induced to come and join the co-ordinating agency. More than propaganda, concrete achievement in the directions mentioned above will be a great potent influence for inducing social service organisations to join the co-ordinating agency.

It is admitted that co-ordination of social services requires an efficient machinery and a staff fully trained in the theory and practice of social Work. At present facilities for training social workers in India are far too inadequate and when we talk of co-ordination we must realise that co-ordination without an experienced and efficient staff to run not only the co-ordinating agency but the affiliating bodies will at best be only amateurish. In every province there must be a school for training social workers. Besides, refresher courses for older social workers should also be arranged so that they may be enabled to understand some of the latest developments in the science and art of social work. It is no less important that the personnel chosen by organisations should have the requisite mental makeup for social work, a certain amount of idealism and a spirit of service. When we have in each affiliating organisation knowledgeable and understanding social workers, there will be no need for any interference by the co-ordinating body in the internal management or affairs of the affiliating body. In fact if we want to make a success of co-ordination of the social services in India we must guarantee the autonomy of every affiliating unit. Another important condition for making social work

effective is that social workers must be decently remunerated and duly respected by the public and the official world.

Co-ordination of social services: To be effective, it is necessary to bring within the ambit of the co-ordinating agency the agencies of the government working for social welfare. In America private voluntary social service agencies do not receive any help from government. But in India all well established organisations receive grants-in-aid from the Government. So it is necessary in our effort to avoid duplication and overlapping of effort and expenditure what the government is doing in different spheres of social welfare. It is necessary therefore that government agencies also should be represented on the co-ordination body. An agreement will have to be reached in respect of social service in the country between government and voluntary agencies so that duplication and overlapping may be avoided. Opportunities should be provided for the representation of both the agencies to come together as often as possible so that by exchange of views, mutual discussion and sharing of each other's experience they may profit themselves. It is with this idea in view that the guild of service threw open its membership to the representatives of government institutions on the same basis as for voluntary agencies. Government agencies however should not receive any financial help from the financing agency.

Possibilities of co-ordination.—The experience gained by the guild of service in its attempt to co-ordinate social service activities in the city of Madras makes one believe that co-ordination in a systematic and more expensive scale is possible despite the many shortcomings in our society. Religious and communal bodies working for the social amelioration of the people belonging to their faith and community are likely to view with suspicion any attempt at co-ordination. But such exclusive bodies have joined the guild

of services and have given their fullest co-operation to the guild in its attempt at co-ordination.

Difficulties.—We have to face two difficulties that may militate against co-ordination. One is the religious sentiment and the other is the communal loyalty of certain organisations. Such difficulties cannot be solved either by force or by compulsion, but by persuasion, toleration, discussion and mutual agreement. As has been observed already the object of co-ordination is to avoid overlapping and duplication and to provide financial aid for the affiliating bodies. While copying the American community chest in India we have to bear in mind the following:—

Social service agencies get grants-in-aid from the government and people belonging to a faith or community contribute to the upkeep of their organisation. When a community chest is started, will the government continue the usual grant-in-aid and will the people belonging to a faith or community freely give to the community chest? Will it be possible for the community chest to enlist the sympathies of this class of people? Will it be economical for the community chest to undertake the collection? There is a possible danger arising out of the community chest though it may be only temporary. Further the community chest if and when started should not adversely affect the

help from the public that voluntary bodies are already receiving. Another question to be considered is whether the government will continue its grant-in-aid to its voluntary agencies on the same basis as now after the community chest begins to function. Before we take up coordination we have to fulfil some of the essential commissions for co-ordination such as directory, a school for training social workers and a bureau of research and study.

Taking all aspects of the problem into consideration co-ordination of social service activities in India is possible but the scheme has to be well thought out so as to meet the peculiar needs and circumstances in the country. The guild of service being aware of all the limitations and difficulties has been attempting co-ordination which to many may not appear to be on all fours with similar attempt either in America or in England.

While we should take note and profit by the experience of the American and English systems it is necessary to modify the schemes of co-ordination to suit the genius of India and meet the conditions peculiar to India. Co-ordination of Social Service activities is certainly possible and the difficulties mentioned are not insuperable as they can be resolved by toleration and mutual discussion and agreement.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE THIRD ANNUAL SESSION

Section III : Co-ordination of Social Work

—Its possibilities and difficulties:—

Chairman: Dr. Radhakamal Mukherjee

Secretary: Mr. P. N. Saxena

Recorder: Mr. V. M. Kulkarni

The recommendations of the Conference are as under:—

1. In each city there should be set up a "council of Social Service Agencies" for bringing about co-operation and co-ordination in all activities undertaken by private

and public agencies in the field of social service. With this object in view the Indian Conference of Social Work or its Provincial Branches should, wherever possible, take the initiative in establishing such councils of Social Service Agencies.

2. The councils of Social Service Agencies should take steps for the promotion of the idea of "Community Chest" and "Joint Campaign" for raising funds required for social work.

3. Councils of Social Service Agencies should further take measures to bring together Charity Trusts working in the same city or region having similar aims and objects for efficient administration and co-ordination of their activities.

4. In a secular state the handicap, ignorance and social inadequacy of every person, to whatever caste, creed and sect he belongs is of concern to the public and the State. While caste and religious institutions often have undertaken social work efficiently, it is expected that in the future set-up of Social Services their role will be increasingly taken up by public trusts or the State and organised on regional basis.

5. The Conference recommends that both Central and Provincial Governments should early take up appropriate social welfare legislation, especially in fields where

the efforts of voluntary social service agencies have already borne fruit.

6. The Indian Conference of Social Work and its branches should formulate integrated plans of social services to be undertaken at

(a) National,

(b) Provincial, and

(c) Local Government levels,

and submit them to the appropriate authorities.

7. The Indian Conference of Social Work strongly emphasises the need of immediate functional co-ordination of various social services undertaken by the different departments of the various ministries of the Central and the Provincial Governments. It further urges that before Ministries of Social Welfare are set up, such co-ordination and integration should be brought about as would avoid waste, overlapping and inefficiency.

SOCIAL WORK IN INDUSTRY

MISS DOROTHY MOSES

The Industrial revolution is barely a hundred years old in India. Consequently we are seeing some of the worst aspects of exploitation by short sighted industrialists anxious only to make quick money. The human element in the cost of production has been so badly neglected that there has been a steady deterioration in the worker's productive capacity as well as that of his morale. He is, therefore, willing to listen to anyone who offers him a ready made solution, thereby creating crises leading to all sorts of breakdowns in social, economic and even ethical values. In trying to bring about some adjustment in the relationship between the employer and the worker and in trying to create conditions that would help the worker to function most effectively one can not expect just one group alone to work the miracle. It is too high and complicated a job to be done either by the state, the em-

ployer or the worker alone. His well-being can be achieved only through the concerted efforts of all three bodies. Not one of them could afford to function alone nor even feel that it was competent to bring about the well-being of the worker without the co-operation of others.

The feeling that the welfare state especially in its early stages of growth in no way solved the problems of particular groups was almost universal in England and they still feel that the welfare state has much to achieve.

In the United States altogether a different philosophy prevailed. The whole historical background of this country encouraged a tendency for the ordinary individual to have unlimited confidence in himself and in his capacity to work miracles as he had seen his father or his grandfather accomplish before him. Compared with this stur-

diness of spirit, the despair, the spirit of dependence, the apathy and lack of confidence in the Indian worker is deplorable. The worker in the U. S. A., resented any tendency towards paternalism either by the state or the employer. He felt that he was capable of providing for his own welfare through his trade unions and did not want to be beholden to anyone for what he enjoyed.

This, however, is one side of the picture and one that ought to be an inspiration to workers everywhere, that if they have enough confidence in themselves and if other conditions are also favourable they too should be able to provide for their own needs. On the other hand the American scene in 1947 from other angles especially the one in which Taft and Hartly had been successful in limiting the rights of workers presented a different picture. This made one to realise that in spite of all their achievements the American worker and his trade unions could only flourish if certain favourable conditions were made possible through the authority of the state. If the state did not step in and guarantee minimum living and working conditions they would not be able to enjoy the fruits of their struggle. Again since all trade unions were not fabulously wealthy there existed whole groups of workers who even if they lived in a prosperous country like the United States never enjoyed even a few of the benefits that rich unions provided for its members. Equality of treatment could only be assured by an authority higher than the employing body and the workers needed someone to whom they could turn when crises within industry arose.

Trade unions were strong in the Northern states of the U.S.A. but were very weak in the south because of the backwardness of the people. Consequently there was a great deal of paternalism sometimes to the point where

employers did everything for their workers so that they might not be persuaded to join trade unions. This had a degenerating effect on the personality of the worker for it made him love dependence and even blinded him to the fact that he was enjoying gratis what other workers had fought so hard to obtain. They were taking "free rides" as a Trade Unionist neatly and aptly expressed.

These would make clear some of the problems that are involved when one takes up for consideration the welfare of the workers in industry. As India speeds up her industrialisation it becomes apparent that this change from an agricultural to an industrial economy is creating new needs and new problems. Older industrialised countries have had to face them too and now that India is passing through the same phase she needs guidance and advice as to how she can best promote conditions that will contribute to the well-being of the workers and also conducive and harmonious industrial relations. It is only when the worker is happy and contented that an atmosphere for congenial industrial relationship leading to increased productivity is created. For this reason it has been customary for the Welfare of the industrial worker to receive priority in every industrialised country where the state has worked up to its responsibilities.

In order to study the question the subject will be discussed under three headings (1) Social Work in Industry by the state, (2) Social Work in Industry by the Employer and (3) Social Work in Industry by the Trade Unions.

Through group discussions we can arrive at conclusions which will help us to understand the scope and content of the welfare activities that should be undertaken by the state, the employers and by workers' association like trade unions. We shall also consider as to where the responsibility of each

begins and where it should end.

From the time a worker enters an industry and from the time begins to contribute to the economic production of his country the state begins to feel a responsibility for his welfare. It manifests its concern by passing laws protecting him from the degrading effects of unemployment, ensuring good working conditions inside the factory and even touching other aspects of his needs such as housing, provisions for old age, facilities for adequate education and recreation. Protection of women workers and young persons has always had the special attention of any state. In fact welfare legislation has often started with the needs of this particular group.

There is great need for a new outlook by employers in India. The human factor in the production of goods can no longer be ignored and the employer must look upon the labour as one of the very important sources of wealth in a country. Consequently he should be looked after with greater care and his well-being encouraged by every means so that efficiency and productive capacity be raised to a high level and the employer be made to see the wisdom of these actions in the reduced costs of production.

The folly of paying low wages for long working hours will be realised if the employer finds that he is constantly having to handle labour living in a vicious circle of low wages leading to an undermining of his health and efficiency which again lowers his capacity to earn and so *ad infinitum*. Welfare of the worker in this light cannot then be looked upon as a luxury but a social responsibility of the employer and one which has to be viewed both realistically and scientifically. Employers in India must learn their lesson before it is too late before forces that they cannot control are unloosed and even their legitimate profits are taken away

from them.

Since ultimate responsibility and authority lie in the state, time and again it has had to interfere and stop the exploitation of one group by another but legislation for enforcing welfare measures will never create the personal enthusiasm and cordial relations that should exist between capital and labour. This only comes through mutual respect and understanding of each one's contribution to the production of wealth in any country.

Employers should be advised to appoint trained people if this schemes for the welfare of his workers are to prove a success and if he should desire to have a happy and contented labour force.

The third and very potent force in any industry is the Trade Unions and the role that they will play in the future of India. Its right to exist has been recognised in every country that calls itself democratic for it is only through these kinds of associations that the worker learns to take his high place in the Society. It is through these organised efforts that he makes his voice heard constitutionally and demands his rights as promised him by government. Attempts to suppress this body or to develop a paternalism by the state and the employer towards the worker is apt to dull the effectiveness of trade unions for then it cannot function as the proper machinery through which an enlightened labour force should act.

One of the most important questions to be raised will be the extent to which a trade union should be advised to go. Should it enter the field of politics itself and through political action satisfy the needs of the worker or should it be content to function only in the social and economic spheres and get its demands through bargaining alone? India can learn from the experiences of other countries where trade unions have developed various patterns of functions and

after evaluating the gains decide what should be the aims and scope of such a movement here.

As we consider these aspects in detail it will be well to remember that India's past history and present circumstances are such that it can not afford to accept any one pattern of industrial relationships which has proved successful in another country. We must evolve a pattern of responsibilities by the state, the employer and the worker which will spring from the needs of the situations themselves and should therefore be most conducive to the harmonious functioning of all three. We must take into consideration the indescribable poverty of the masses in India, their ignorance and backwardness when we discuss what trade unions are doing in other countries and not be carried away by their achievements there. We must be realistic and face the situations as they exist and then consider whether it is not more profitable that at this stage in India's industrial history, we should insist that the state take the initiative in providing for the welfare of the industrial worker. Should we at this stage also suggest that the employer share the responsibilities until the worker has been educated to this rights, and been helped to develop new attitudes that will help him to understand his responsibilities.

Social work as a new profession is beginning to be more precise in its definition now.

The most satisfactory definition of social work is the one that includes not only the concept of helping people in need but also that of helping them in making their own adjustments to life building their inner strengths and resources so that it ultimately develops their capacity to lead satisfying and useful lives independent of outside aid. We should not stop at clarifying the responsibilities of the state, the employer and the trade unions in promoting the welfare of the industrial worker. In the light of the

aims and objectives of what social work now stands for, we shall have to see how best the state can contribute to creating conditions which will release the worker ultimately to help himself and live creatively; the employer should also do to bring about these changed attitudes. Last but not least is the important role the trade union plays in helping the enlightened and self-reliant worker to express himself in the most satisfactory manner.

With these new perspectives social work has very little need for pure charity and philanthropy either on the part of the state or that of the employer because that only leads to further dependency and deterioration of one's capacity to help oneself. We should not think that we have solved all problems if we have solved the problems that confront the industrial worker alone. Human society will not allow one group to advance at the expense of others or by ignoring others. India cannot afford to spend large sums of money to develop isolated schemes of welfare for the industrial worker alone, while all other groups sink deeper and deeper into poverty into lower standards of living with undermined health as well as morale. If this is done the worker will find himself attacked by the same social disease again and dragged down to the level from which he has been raised.

In order to avoid this calamity the welfare of every group along with that of labour should be visualised, planned and put into action. Only in this way can India advance to its rightful place in the family of nations and not be ashamed of its indigence and backwardness. Let us start with the welfare of the worker in the industry remembering at the same time the needs of other groups and of the expediency of helping them as well for they too are contributing substantially to the health and progress of the country.

SOCIAL WORK IN INDUSTRY BY THE EMPLOYER

E. J. S. RAM

At present when our country is being industrialised the need for scientific and systematic social work in Industry is vital. In industry the manpower is an indispensable and most important component. The modern concept of social work in industry, therefore, centres round the most important and fundamental need of industry—the employee. The human element takes the place of precedence—for however good the machinery and the raw material might be it is not possible to make the best use of them unless the human element that is to deliver the goods is as efficient as possible to begin with and is kept up at that level. Each employer should, therefore, endeavour to give the employee a better environment to make life better, richer and happier for him to live.

Scope and Extent of Welfare Work.—Welfare work implies both a scientific outlook and an assumption by the management of some social responsibilities for the welfare of the worker. The first and foremost aim of welfare work is to achieve industrial peace and to maintain harmonious employer-employee relationship by keeping the labour happy and contented.

Welfare work covers a wide range of varied activities and the type of welfare work depends on the nature of the industry, the situation of the factory, its size and particularly the type of labour it has to cater to and several other circumstances peculiar to itself.

Social work in industry is commonly known as "Welfare Work" and it constitutes one of the most important functions of the management of industrial relations. It may be said to comprise all that bears on the health, general well-being, safety and efficiency of the workers. Narrowing the scope

further it may be said to cover the provision of good conditions with regard to heating, ventilation, lighting, cleanliness and sanitation, the prevention of undue fatigue by devices such as rest-pauses, change of work to break monotony, provision of seats, the prevention of accidents, medical care and supervision, recreational and educational facilities of all kinds, housing, pension and gratuity schemes, provident fund schemes, thrift schemes, holiday arrangements, free transport to and from the place of work and residence, provision of mess rooms, cloak rooms, canteen, protection against fire, first aid appliances, the provision of protective clothing and the selection and training of workers.

Welfare work in other countries.—The western democracies like the United Kingdom and United States of America in particular and the Eastern industrial countries like Japan have too well realised the necessity and importance of welfare work and have incorporated it among the chief activities of the state and their industrial organisations.

In America the progress in this sphere has been such as to accept welfare work as an integral part of a firm's administration just as the upkeep of costly machinery is considered. Similarly Soviet Russia has considered welfare work as a primary concern of the state.

The present position in India.—Labour in India is said to be ignorant, illiterate, undisciplined, unpunctual, inefficient, migratory in habits and quite unstable in character. To secure a stable class of workers it is incumbent on the industrialists to make them efficient by providing better conditions both inside and outside the factory.

We see signs which are favourable to the evolution of a better economic order. The rising tide of mass consciousness, the growing sympathy of the progressive employers for labour and the increasing recognition of the rights of workers by the government are all factors which are bound to bring about a better relationship between labour and capital.

Apart from the efforts made by the progressive employers to foster amicable and friendly relationship by providing adequate welfare measures the government have shown recently considerable sympathy towards labour and have adequately made provision in recent labour legislation for workers' welfare, safety and general well-being.

Some suggestions to employers:—In the light of the existing conditions following suggestions may be considered by the employers:

(1) Each employer should seek to surround the workers with the best material environment which his special circumstances and the conditions of his industry render practicable. In order to meet this requirement each employer should set aside a portion of his profits for welfare activities.

(2) Each employer should realize that the handling of the operatives and the provision of suitable working conditions for them are much more important than the factory or its machinery. The factory must not only have economic considerations, but must also see to the care and convenience of its operatives, because one-third of an operative's life is to be spent within the factory.

(3) Each employer should set up a Department of Industrial Relations or Personnel Management which may be entrusted with the following activities:

(I) Initial selection, medical inspection and initiation schemes.

(II) Care for comfort and health in

work by attention to lighting, heating, ventilation, sanitation, seating, canteens, cloakrooms, first aid, dentistry, chiropody, assistance during sickness, holidays and endeavours to avoid over-time and short-time.

(III) Educational assistance, both technical and non-technical, linking up with and in extension of that provided by Local Authorities (and backed by a promotion scheme where possible), and also the wider development which can be obtained through Works Committee, Thrift Schemes, Suggestions Committees.

(IV) Recreational and Social Activities which provide healthy relaxation and help, by a Committee system to develop initiative through experience gained in managing other people. The aim should be to make these self-supporting so far as running expenses are concerned and not competitive with other local activities.

(V) The development of personality through such activities as Hobbies, Exhibitions, Magazines, and Dramatic and Musical Societies.

(VI) The provision of Physical Training, Sports and Camps where desirable and in demand.

(VII) Provision of co-partnership and other profit sharing schemes, pension and unemployment funds, and where necessary, housing accommodation.

(VIII) Redressal of grievances of employees.

It should, however, be necessary for the efficient administration and organisation of the above activities to engage specialists as Industrial Relations as Officers, Personnel

Managers and Welfare supervisors and that all concerned in the factory realise that there must be mutual co-operation and mutual acceptance of responsibilities. Special training courses for welfare supervision should be organised and conducted with the help and assistance of the Universities and Schools of social welfare work so as to provide good and efficient leadership to the Industry for the organisation and administration of welfare activities.

(4) It should be made obligatory on employers of more than 100 workers to set up a canteen where meals may be purchased by the workers inside the factory or in the immediate vicinity.

(5) Efforts should be made by employers to bring down the rate of accidents through better lighting, strict instructions to the management to teach safety measures to inexperienced workers, fencing of dangerous machinery; colouring of mobile and immobile parts of machinery, and issue of instructions to workers in safety through exhibition of Posters, charts, films, slides, etc. The appointment of a "Safety Officer" in a factory is a novel feature of the present day British industry which has contributed very largely towards the reduction of all avoidable accidents in factories. It is essential if accidents are to be avoided to appoint a specially qualified "Safety Officer" to instruct the workers in the proper use of machinery and to cultivate among them "Safety First" habit.

(6) The local development of welfare work outside the factories should be entrusted to a staff of well-experienced and qualified Welfare Officers who should work in close collaboration with 'Welfare Advisory Panels' consisting of local representatives of voluntary and other representative organizations. The main duties of these officers should be to try to secure through the appropriate authorities that the work-

people—especially those engaged in important production work have satisfactory accommodation; that there are satisfactory arrangements for them to get meals and other necessities and to travel to and from their work; that there is suitable provision for recreation; and that, where required, provision is made for the care of young children of mothers working in factories.

(7) The special needs of children of industrial workers for their enjoyment and amusement should not be overlooked, and specially equipped children's play centres, consisting of swings, see-saws, giant slides, ocean waves and merry-go-rounds should be set up in labour localities. Voluntary helpers may be recruited to assist in the organisation of these play centres.

(8) The shopping problems of industrial workers, particularly married women should be solved as far as possible by calling meetings of representatives of all the interests concerned in areas where difficulties arise. If possible orders for articles required by each woman worker may be placed in advance with the shopkeepers and articles kept ready to be taken away merely by calling at the shops instead of queuing and waiting for them for long hours. Wherever feasible arrangements should be made by the employers to release the woman worker for an hour or so for shopping purposes during working hours.

(9) Industrial workers living away from home and falling sick should be specially looked after. Employers should be asked to ensure that workers who fall sick are fully aware of the facilities available for their care and treatment, and that the worker's relatives are communicated with in case of serious illness or special emergency.

(10) A special Scheme for the establishment of 'Rest Houses' should be introduced by the employers to meet the needs of workers requiring rest after the strain of

continuous work but not hospital or medical treatment. The rest break would serve as a preventive measure to avoid illness and breakdown for the industrial worker suffering from the effects of accumulated fatigue. Experience goes to show that very often a long period of illhealth has been caused by workpeople carrying on at work too long and going to their medical practitioner too late. If everyone in industry takes a lively interest in the problem of rest break, it will result in earlier treatment and probably avoid lost time altogether.

(11) The State, the employers and the public authorities should be asked to collaborate in the task of organising camps and holiday centres for industrial workers. Holiday camps and Centres should be set up amidst ideal surroundings for providing holiday makers fresh air, rest recreation and companionship. Games and expeditions should be arranged at these Centres and facilities should be made available for swimming, indoor and outdoor recreation, boating, concerts, dancing, exhibitions, pageants, bands, displays, parades, lectures, debates and discussions etc. It should be impressed upon the workers and the employers that holidays can only be justified if those who take them, return fitter than before for their jobs.

(12) Special rehabilitation centres should be set up for the industrial workers in co-operation with Government where adequate provision should be made for psycho-therapy, medicotherapy and occupational therapy. Through the medium of these rehabilitation centres a new purpose of social well-being of the industrial workers will be served in the restoration of the injured worker to health, to confidence and in many cases to his own job.

In times of depression there may be a tendency for employers to cut down on welfare expenditure and here it is that Government should play its part by insisting that the maintenance of the worker in comfort and in health, is a necessary and desirable objective of social and industrial policy.

Welfare ideals:—The employer should conceive of a factory as a place where labour should wear a smiling face, and any success attained springs from the fact that material development has marched shoulder to shoulder with the workers, heartened by a fresh conception of the dignity of labour.

It should be a cherished ambition of all employers that their factories may ever be a place where labour shall wear a smiling face and be assured of worthy and agreeable amenities.

RECOMMENDATION OF THE THIRD ANNUAL SESSION

Section IV: Social Work in Industry:

Chairman: Miss Dorothy Moses

Secretary: Mr. S. N. Ranade

Recorder: Mr. Shyam Mohan

1. Medical Inspection of Factories.

This Conference recommends that Provincial Governments should take upon themselves to immediately strengthen and enlarge the existing Factory Inspectorate with a view to ensuring enforcement of the existing Labour Legislation especially in the matter of safety, health and welfare of the Indus-

trial workers.

2. A, Welfare Trust Fund.

This Conference recommends to the Government that a Welfare Trust Fund should be constituted for each industry or undertaking as the case may be, and contributions to this Fund should be made by the State from public revenues, by the industry from profits and by labour from fines Fund, unpaid wages and unpaid bonus when they lapse, and that the administration of the

Fund should be in the hands of a Joint Board consisting of representatives of Government employers and employees inside the factories and outside.

B. Welfare Officers.

This Conference recommends that a separate cadre of Welfare Officers should be established by law with powers and duties clearly laid down and that the recruitment, conditions and service and terms of employment of such officers should be in the hands of the Joint Board in-charge of the administration of the Welfare Trust Fund for each industry or undertaking as the case may be.

3. Institute of Industrial Welfare.

This Conference recommends that an All India Institute of Industrial Welfare, Psychology, Medicine and Hygiene should be established by the Central Government as early as possible.

4. Personnel Officers.

This Conference recommends that employers should realise the value of employing fully trained and qualified or experienced personnel officers who should be not only given a status in management organization but also invested with wide powers to do their jobs thoroughly and effectively.

5. Training for Personnel Management.

In view of India's needs for improved labour management relations in industry, the Conference recommends that the Government, Industry and the Trade Unions should encourage and develop schemes for the training of personnel officers. The employers should be requested to co-operate with institutes for the training of such officers so that a most comprehensive training will be imparted to the students—a training which should be based more on practical rather than theoretical aspects of labour relations.

6. Indebtedness.

This Conference recommends that Government through appropriate legislation should take steps like declaring a moratorium, scaling down of debts, regulating money-lending in order to provide relief to the industrial workers.

7. Housing.

This Conference reiterates its recommendations in respect of Housing submitted at the last session of the Conference and recommends that Housing should be given top-priority and the programme of building one-million houses formerly announced by the Government should not be abandoned. It suggests that if the existing conditions do not permit the building of permanent structures, semi-permanent structures on a large scale should be put up.

It also recommends that with a view to providing adequate and hygienic housing accommodation for working class people, the State should provide legislation to the effect that every industry employing 1000 or more workers should provide residential accommodation for at least 50% of workmen at a rent not exceeding 10% of pay and also regulate the terms and conditions on which such houses may be let.

8. Education.

This Conference considers education of workers as a necessary condition of the successful implementation of welfare programmes and recommends that the Central and Provincial Governments should expedite the plans for compulsory primary education.

9. Social Security.

This Conference recommends that comprehensive schemes of social security should be introduced by the Government and as a step in that direction group insurance of workers by the employers should be adopted.

Pandit H. N. Kunzru, declaring the Exhibition on "Social Work Abroad" open at 5 p.m. dwelt upon the role of exhibitions as a very effective and impressive medium of visual education and stressed the importance of such an unique exhibition.

The exhibition which was arranged in the University Convocation Hall proved to be of immense educational value to social workers in India. The exhibition was an attempt to portray pictorially various aspects of the growth and development of social work in countries more advanced in this field.

The countries that responded to the invitation of the Conference to present the picture of social work in their respective lands were U.K., U.S.A., Sweden, Switzerland and Norway. Besides, some international agencies such as the UNESCO, W.H.O., the Red Cross, the Y.M.C.A., the UNICEF and the Social Affairs Division of the United Nations also participated.

The fields of social work that the exhibition covered were Child Welfare, Welfare in Industry, Relief and Rehabilitation, Rural Social Work and Training in Social Work.

SYMPOSIUM ON 'SOCIAL WORK ABROAD'

SOCIAL WELFARE IN THE UNITED STATES

The first meeting of the symposium on "Social Work Abroad" was held on 26th December 1949 when Miss Evelyn Hersey, Social Welfare Attache to the American Embassy in India, spoke on "Social Services in the U. S. A". Dr. J. M. Kumarappa presided.

Social welfare programmes, planning and trends of any nation in the world cannot be adequately described in a short period. Time certainly does not permit painting an adequate picture of social welfare in a huge changing country like my own. The United States of America is a comparatively young nation—still being builded by, and of groups from all parts of the world—of all races, creeds and cultures.

Basic human needs and problems are the same everywhere. Each human being needs sufficient food, shelter, clothing, help in health problems, a chance to grow, earn, learn and enjoy some leisure, in his childhood, in adulthood and in old age. Everyone needs sound family life and some warm human relationships.

Methods of meeting these human needs

depend on the philosophy and goals envisioned by the group or nation itself on its resources and on cultural patterns. In the climate of a totalitarian state, where the goal is the individual's use to the State, this goal will predetermine the goals of that nation's "social welfare" programme. In a nation the philosophy of which emphasizes the value to freedom of the individual, the social welfare programme will be built on this base and with this goal.

Each country and group must also approach its own problems in its own way, by its own methods conditioned by its own human and economic resources. These methods, if they really are to meet a nation's needs, must grow out of its own cultural patterns. Names for services, their organization and structure, as well as methods of approach must necessarily vary.

In the United States of America the emphasis of social welfare planning has been on the individual, the family and the community. One might define simply the goal of social welfare planning in the United States as follows—to help every

individual in attaining his own highest stature, mentally, physically, emotionally, socially and economically, by trying to help him free himself from any bonds which prevent this growth—either within himself or in his environment.

All social welfare planning, in the United States and elsewhere, has two phases one curative, one preventive. Social services rush to the aid of sufferers from a flood, but good social planning tries to find means of preventing floods. Both types of programmes must go side by side, and neither can be neglected.

Another factor which must be considered when looking at social services in the United States is the changing, growing quality of all services for people. Social welfare methods and thinking are very different now than they were 50 years ago, even 10 years ago. I am also sure that the next few years will see many changes. We social workers are learning by experience, by our mistakes, our successes, and by adding constantly to our knowledge and understanding. Then, too, conditions change; needs change, and services must also change.

One characteristic of American Social Work and Social Services is the prominent part played by privately initiated, sponsored, and operated non-governmental social agencies, and the wide participation of the majority of citizens in their support, use and operation. In fact, in the United States, private groups of individuals have done the pioneering, and still carry a large part of American social services—playgrounds, children's agencies, family counseling, health agencies, etc. Sometimes it has been a religious group, sometimes just a group of neighbours or assorted citizens who have seen a need, come together and try to meet it. Perhaps a group of men see that, in a certain neighbourhood, the children have no place to play. They get together, dig in

their pockets, ask their friends, buy a plot of land, and start an organization. At first, it is true, that many of these efforts were initiated by the financially privileged persons who wanted to do for others. Now, however, social welfare participation has grown and spread. In an average American town, the butcher, the car conductor, the employer, the trade union member all contribute.

Another characteristic of American social work is the large amount of co-operation and co-ordination of these thousands of social agencies.

The movement towards co-operation began with groups getting together to confer on common interests. The United States National Conference of Social Work celebrated its 75th anniversary two years ago. The 1949 United States Social Work Year Book lists 546 National social work agencies (federations and councils like the National Tuberculosis Association). State and local social work conferences and agencies have also been set up.

Most American cities now have three co-ordinating agencies—sometimes these are all part of the functions of one agency, sometimes there are three agencies.

1. Councils of social agencies. These councils are federations of social agencies in a community founded to assist in co-operation and social planning.

2. The second is the Social Services Exchange. Here the agencies register the individual in which they are interested, so that there can be co-operation between agencies in helping individuals.

3. The third co-ordinating agency is the Community Chest. The "Chest" is the joint fund raising organization for the social agencies in the Community. Once a year hundreds, sometimes thousands of volunteer workers, recruited from wealthy industrialists, school teachers, employees or trade union members canvas homes and places of

work collecting contributions for the year's budgets of the city's social agencies.

These workers not only call on persons who may give lakhs to the cause but those who can give one rupee or one anna. This wide financial participation means increasingly larger groups of people interested in social service.

Another interesting characteristic of social work in the United States is the emphasis in the last 30 years on the importance of training for social work.

In the beginning most of the work was done by volunteers who gave of their free time. As social work grew everyone saw that for certain jobs, full time work was needed. Full time workers began to be employed, backed and supplemented by volunteers.

As the years passed, it became evident, that workers dealing with the needs of human beings needed special knowledge and training. It is not enough to give a hungry man money, but one has to know how to help him to become self-supporting.

At first short courses, then schools grew up all over the country to meet this demand for training for social work.

In 1949 there were 49 graduate Schools of Social Work listed by the American Association of Schools of Social Work with 10,000 students enrolled including 4,026 full time graduate students. (There are also 48 schools giving certified undergraduate course in social work).

Social work in the United States is becoming a profession like law and medicine, and the responsible social work positions are being filled by these trained workers.

Volunteer work, however has increased rather than decreased during this same period. Volunteer workers are found in most organizations serving on Boards and Committees and supplementing and aiding the work of the professional social workers

can be as devoted, as interested, as understanding. If they are not, they are not good social workers. A doctor who has training in healing the sick, does not lose his interest but gains more interest. Neither the fact of training nor receipt of fees should make him less skillful or devoted.

Another interesting trend in United States social work is that away from the institution method of approach to many problems toward the completely individualized approach. Dependent children a hundred years ago were sent to almshouses along with sick and old and never-do-well adults. Next came the era of orphanages—institutions for children. In the last decades, Children's Aid Societies have adopted the Foster Home plan, and now an increasing number of dependent children are placed in normal homes. Here a foster mother and father try to give them normal home life.

This type of care is also being tried for old people, where possible, instead of the use of "old folks homes".

Government participation in social services in the United States differs in one respect from that in Britain or here in India. The custom of government grants to private agencies is not followed in the United States. Except for grants to certain hospitals, tax money is not available to private social service organizations. Co-operation may be close; but there is no financial participation by government.

Since the depression in the 1930's, the United States Government social services are increasing in number, coverage and efficiency. As in India, such services are found on the local, state and federal levels, (local, provincial, centre government levels) intergrated often by grants-in-aid.

What are some of the social needs and social services in the United States? Time will only permit us to give a hasty glance at a few.

I. *Education*.—School attendance is compulsory for all children from 6 years of age up to 16 years of age. Tax supported free schools are available to every child through High School, (completing preparation for the university). There is also an increasing number of free tax supported state and city universities.

These schools are now including many social services for the students such as vocational guidance, general counseling, recreation, health education and services. Modern education is trying to prepare young people for life. Vocational courses and schools are increasing in number and quality.

More and more emphasis is being placed on facilities for adult education, special educational facilities for the handicapped, the blind, the deaf, the mentally retarded.

II. *Health Services*.—Some of these services are supported by government, some by private funds, and include such services as clinics, hospitals, visiting nurses, etc. There are national, state, and local health departments in all parts of the country. These programmes attempt to see that each individual receives the health services he needs, and that adequate health safeguards are set up in each community.

III. *Social Insurances*.—Government social insurances came later in the United States than in many countries, and is still not adequate in amount or in coverage. The United States now has Unemployment Compensation, Unemployment Insurance, Old Age and Survivors Insurance, and insurances for veterans. A governmental plan for Health Insurance is now under discussion and is part of president Truman's plan and recommendations.

IV. *Public Assistance*.—No one in the United States should be hungry or unsheltered or unclothed. At

first private agencies tried to carry the burden of relief to those caught by poverty with some local community tax help. When the depression in the '30's caught such a large number of people—a system of public assistance (drawing on federal, state and local tax funds or on state and local tax funds) was set up. In almost every state now a family or individual in need may apply and receive a stipend for food, clothing, and shelter. With this financial aid, goes access to health services, or help in planning, or help in finding employment.

Federal aid is added to state and local tax funds for providing aid to the blind and the aged. This aid enables those who are able to care for themselves sufficiently to live as normal a life as possible in the community instead of being forced by circumstances to live in an institution.

The third type of public assistance is the programme called "Aid to Dependent Children". This aid is given to a mother with small children whose husband is removed from the home by death, or prolonged illness or a prison sentence or desertion. This aid enables her to stay in the home and take care of the children instead of seeking full time employment to support them.

Begging is now illegal in the United States and unnecessary. If a person now asks alms, he may be sent to the appropriate office and receive intelligent constructive help.

V. *The Veterans Administration*.—The Veterans Administration administers benefits for former members of the military and naval forces of the United States, and also for dependents of disabled veterans and survivors of deceased veterans.

Veterans benefits include—under specified conditions—compensation, pensions, vocational rehabilitation, education, the guarantee of loans for purchase or construction of homes, farms, and business property,

life insurance, death benefits, officers' retirement pay, and physical examination, hospital and out-patient treatment or domiciliary care.

VI. *The Department of Agriculture.*—

The Department of Agriculture—the farmers' department gathers and disseminates information on a comprehensive range of agricultural subjects. This agency conducts research in agricultural and industrial chemistry, the industrial uses of farm products, entomology, soils, agricultural engineering, and economics, marketing, crop and livestock production and manufacturing of dairy products, human nutrition and home economics.

It makes research results available for practical farm and home application through extension and experiment station work in cooperation with the States. Agricultural countries in the United States have county extension agents who help to apply the Department's research to the specific needs in each locality. These agents are looked to for leadership in agricultural matters in their communities and are a direct link between the National Government and the individual farmer and his family.

VII. *Prisons.*—The Federal prison system is administered by the United States Department of Justice. Life in a Federal prison is a regimen of work, training, and correctional treatment combined with intelligent discipline and custody.

There are 28 Federal penal institutions of widely differing types and sizes. The objective in such variety is to assure the proper classification and segregation of prisoners according to their character, the nature of the offence, their mental condition and other factors. This classification is the basis of an individualized system of discipline, care, and treatment of the persons committed to such institutions. (Each

State has a State prison or penitentiary, and there are also local penal institutions. Imprisonment in a Federal institution is for persons convicted of violating a Federal law.)

Modern prison practice emphasizes rehabilitative treatment including social service, education, recreation, and job placement. Older concepts of imprisonment merely to punish the offender and place on him the entire responsibility of correction—are giving way to more modern penal policy of treatment which considers the individual in the light of his own as well as society's best interests. This is in no sense a principle of "coddling," but is an effort to return to society men and women offenders who are better conditioned to be responsible members of the community. Of course, some types of prisoners, such as psychopaths, cannot be reached by rehabilitative procedures.

Juvenile delinquents for the most part are taken care of in separate juvenile courts. The best children's courts are equipped with psychiatrists, social workers. Each child's needs are studied and an attempt made to make a plan which will best help the child.

VIII. *Public Housing Administration.* The responsibilities of the Public Housing Administration include administration of Federal funds for public low-rent housing and slum clearance projects owned and operated by local housing authorities. It is a constituent of the Housing and Home Finance Agency which is the chief housing agency of the National Government.

Few would question the necessity for adequate housing as an aid in promoting human welfare. In the United States, urban families that are self-supporting but unable to pay enough for housing to encourage private enterprise to build homes which they can afford are helped through Government action to achieve the security and advantages

of modern lowcost housing.

The purpose of public low-rent housing is to provide decent houses at low rents for families of low income. Such housing is built only after the local community decides that it is needed. Communities in 35 of the 48 States now have such housing.

The construction job is undertaken by the community's local housing authority, through private contractors. The land for the project is purchased from owners at fair market prices. As a nonprofit public agency, the local authority owns and operates the project, establishes the rent scale, selects eligible families, takes care of repairs and maintenance, and other management functions.

A major share of the housing cost is paid by tenants in rent. A contribution (equal to at least 20 per cent of the Federal share) is also made by the local community through tax exemption.

IX. *Regional projects.*—Regional projects in the United States are best exemplified by the Tennessee Valley Authority, established in 1933 as a democratic experiment in building up, conserving and developing the natural resources of a region. The experiment has provided a means by which all agencies in the region, including Federal agencies, State bureaus, local governments and groups, and thousands of individuals could join forces and focus their efforts toward a common end.

The Tennessee Valley Region today is more prosperous, better able to contribute to the welfare of the Nation, and more capable of assuming a greater share of national responsibilities than it was in 1933. The rate of waste and depletion of resources has been retarded. The people are using their basic wealth of waters, soils, forests, and minerals more efficiently.

The Tennessee River has been transferred from a destructive stream in flood time to water system productive the year round.

Power production has been multiplied 10 times for the benefit of farm, home and industry. Other benefits of the TVA experiment include greater use of river commerce, more fish and wildlife, malaria control, and as industrial economy that has created new wealth and income.

X. Perhaps the most appealing type of social service the world over is that which centers on children. Every American community has social welfare agencies serving children. Education of children and the care of children who through some misfortune have lost their own homes, have already been mentioned. Aside from these services, private and tax money is poured out literally each year to give all children their rightful chance. There is work for crippled children, mentally handicapped, the blind and the deaf. There are numberless organizations to provide recreation. Every town and community has its playgrounds and parks. Private organizations have formed all sorts of youth Groups—Scouts, U.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Y.M.H.A., etc.

Another widespread type of work to help children is the group of agencies working to strengthen family life—family counseling, parent organizations, maternity health clinics prenatal and postnatal care clinics, etc.

Believing the home to be the basic unit in a healthy democracy, American social work has laid great emphasis on strengthening sound home life. Here the child learns his first and lasting fundamental lessons in human relationships, cooperation and relation to authority. When sound home life breaks down, the life of any democracy is endangered.

I have not had time to describe organizations working for better labour laws, more safety protection, various civic organizations and those working for protection of civil rights, etc.

Nor have I touched on the wideflung

agencies for adult recreation, the whole camping and hiking movement, neighborhood houses, and many other agencies.

Nor have I mentioned the many social agencies working to help special groups who for some reason need special help. Sometimes because of historic reasons, sometimes because of our community sins and mistakes there are groups who have had more disadvantages than others. Both private groups and government agencies have been set up to help to correct this inequality of opportunities; thus you find various groups

to help negroes, migrant farm hands, refugees, newly arrived foreign born immigrants and American Indians.

May I say in closing how much I appreciate the opportunity which this conference has offered to share in discussion our human problems which know no national boundaries and to discuss together our search for solutions.

A lively discussion followed Miss Hersey's exhaustive and interesting account of social services in her country.

SOCIAL ACTIVITIES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

At the second meeting of the symposium on December 28, 1949, Mr. Dusan Pokorny of the Czechoslovakian Embassy in India read a paper on "The Social Activities in Czechoslovakia."

By way of introduction, let me give you some background to the outline of social work, by placing before you a few data and figures about Czechoslovakia and her economy in general.

1.

Czechoslovakia has a territory of about 50,000 square miles and a population of 12½ millions. Out of this number, about one-third depend for their livelihood upon working in industries and mines, one-fourth in agriculture, one-fourth in commerce, transport, civil services and professions; the remaining one-eighth of population draw their income in the form of pensions from the National Insurance Scheme.

Using another classification we can say that about one-third of the total population consist of children under 15 and old people above 60; thus, the population in working age can be estimated at about two-third of the total, i. e. at some 8 millions. Out of them three to four millions, i. e. about

two-fifth are employed. These include 2.2 million workers and 600,000 employees in private employment, and 640,000 persons in civil services who, however, include all the personnel of the country's railways.

In the most important sector of the economy, the industries and mines, about 1.4 million persons are producing capital goods accounting for about 800,000 and consumer goods for about 600,000 persons.

About 97 per cent of industrial labour is working in nationalized factories which, along with National Corporations covering the whole of banking, insurance, wholesale distribution and together with co-operatives, 78% of retail trade, form the pillars of the country's economic system. Out of the village population, on the other hand, the landless labourers and poor farmers were allotted, under the post-war land reform schemes practically all the arable land from some 10 million acres of land which formerly belonged to German, Hungarian, Czech, and Slovak landowners and was redistributed after the war, the State receiving a substantial part of the non-arable land, especially all forests. The scope of the land reform may be seen from the fact

that the land redistributed amounts to about one-third of the used land in Czechoslovakia.

The professional activities of the majority of the country's working population are, directly or indirectly, guided by the economic plan, the basic provisions of which are laid down in a Law passed by the Parliament at the beginning of each planning period.

First two year plan.—The first Czechoslovak Two Year Plan covered the years 1947 and 1948. Its aim was mainly, to organize the recovery of the country's production, devastated and disorganized by the occupation and war. To appreciate the estimate of the damages and losses incurred upon our economy during the German occupation, one must remember that they are estimated at about 300 milliards pre-war Czechoslovak Crowns; expressed in terms of the value of current economic activity, this amount represents the Czechoslovak national income of six pre-war years. Apart from that, at the end of the war the country's industrial production was completely disorganized by the war time closing of factories which produced consumer goods and expansion of the metal works production to an extent unbearable for peace time economy.

The rehabilitation and reconstruction plan for 1947 and 1948 was successfully fulfilled in industry, while an unprecedented draught causing a serious harvest failure made it impossible to implement the targets in agriculture. A rainfall 40 per cent less than the normal figure resulted in the agriculture falling short of the 1947 targets by 20 to 50 per cent. The crop production plan for 1948 has, however, been fulfilled. The industry exceeded by about 2 per cent the Two Year Plan targets in all the 60 essential items covering about one-half of the total industrial output, thus bringing the industrial production to a level 10 per

cent higher than that of the pre-war peak year 1937. The magnitude of this achievement of our country's first economic plan will emerge more clearly if we remember that;

(i) the present population of Czechoslovakia is about one-fifth less than it was in 1937 and

(ii) that the industrial production fell in the middle of 1945 to about one-half of that in 1937 and was, accordingly, in the $3\frac{1}{2}$ years since the end of war nearly doubled.

Five year plan.—This year is the first year of the Five Year Plan designed to direct the country's economy in 1949 to 1953. I will not dwell here upon its final targets because they will become a reality only after another four years of hard work, and you may expect me to talk about the present. So let me briefly review only the results of the Five Year Plan's actual working during the first ten months, i. e. during the period ending on October 30th, 1949.

The production targets for industry have been fulfilled; in fact the actual production slightly by 2 per cent exceeded them. Compared with the peak pre-war production in 1937, the output of capital goods is already now, before the end of the first year up by 40 per cent. For instance, the present production figures for lignite, coal, power, crude steel, and tractors are above the 1937 figures by 50, 10, 100, 20 and 500 per cent respectively. The output of consumer goods is increasing also, although at a slower pace: compared with 1948, the cotton and woollen yarn production went up by 11 and 9 per cent respectively. The industrial production as a whole rose, compared with 1937, by 17 per cent and the output per head of population (which is now about one-fifth less than before the war) by 36 per cent.

In agriculture, too, the present estimates of production for 1949 show the highest post-war yields per hectare and surpass even the targets for wheat, rye and barley crop envisaged for the last year (1953) of the Five Year Plan. By the end of October, the planned number of cattle and pigs was exceeded by 5 and 20 per cent respectively.

In our country's economic system under which the nationalized and state enterprises account for about 60 per cent of the total national income, the small producers for 25 per cent and the capitalised sector only for less than 15 per cent, the added effects of increased production in both industry and agriculture brought about a rise in the living standard of the people. In the beginning of November, the Minister of Planning was able to tell the National Assembly that the index of real wages is now 50 per cent above the pre-war figure, and just a few weeks before his speech, the rationing of bread, rolls and flour was abolished, new articles (meat and meat products) added to those already sold on the state free market (the number of shops selling free goods having been doubled) and the prices on the same appreciably reduced, (e. g. radio sets by 20-40 per cent, ice boxes and bicycles by 25 per cent, tyres and tubes by almost 50 per cent, soap by 40-50 per cent, toys by 10 per cent. In this year, the consumption of textile goods was about 35 per cent more than in 1948 and this year's total consumption is estimated to be by one-fourth higher than even in 1937.

Problem of employment:—Coming after this brief introductory survey of Czechoslovak economy to what is usually called the social problems and activities, I would like to deal firstly with the most important question falling under this term, i. e. the problem of employment which is now facing a number of countries in the form of unemployment.

I am glad to say that our country is not among them. There is no unemployment in Czechoslovakia. In 1930 more than one million men and women were idle and starving and even the illfated boom in the last one or two years before the war did not make it possible for our economy to absorb them fully again: in 1937 there were, on the average, still 400,000 unemployed, the industrial employment figure being 10 per cent less than in 1929. Now you may go from town to town from village to village and you would look in vain for an able-bodied person who could say that she or he was unable to find employment. Our country, too, is faced with the problem of unemployment only in the form of shortage of labour.

Shortage of Labour.—Let me illustrate this by a few figures. In the middle of 1946 when they began the preparation of the Two Year Plan, our economists estimated the additional labour needed for the fulfilment of the targets at nearly 600,000. That the Plan actually did provide these jobs may be seen even from the still incomplete figures showing that only in the following next twelve months, between August 1st, 1946 and August 1st, 1947, 300,000 people were newly employed, the industries and agriculture accounting for about 220,000 and 80,000 respectively. Even this influx of labour did not, however, cover the entire requirements. It fell short of the recruitment targets by about 3 per cent the demand of building industry, foundries and furnaces, and mining having been satisfied only by 70, 88 and 92 per cent respectively.

Another set of data relating only to the industry in Bohemia and Moravia estimates the total recruitments in 1946 and 1947 at 430,000. Thus, in the end of 1947, the total number of persons employed in the industry was by 130,000 higher than in 1937, in spite of the fact that about 350,000 German

industrial workers and employees have been transferred after the war to Germany and the country's population came down by about one-fifth.

The Five Year Plan will, according to estimates made in 1948, require additional labour to the tune of 500,000, the industry only needs about a half of this demand. Since, however, practically all the labour reserves have been already absorbed, it is now becoming exceedingly difficult to find workers for all the jobs that are waiting for them. It is, therefore, necessary to provide manpower for the industry by redirecting it from other sectors. During the working of the Five year Plan, more than 200,000 people from the Civil Services, trade, finance and agriculture will be thus entering the factories, increasing the nation's productive power and diminishing the burden of the administrative.

New Wage System.—The task, however, is not only to employ and produce but to distribute fairly what has been produced. And this leads us to the next important question of social policy, to that of wages, which is now confronting more than one country in the shape of 'hunger' wages for a considerable part of the working population.

Before coming to some figures showing how the wages of our workers developed in the recent years, I would like to say a few words about a new wage system which is being introduced in our industries.

As you know, the pay scale of the workers in Europe is usually differentiated for three basic groups: skilled workers, un-skilled hands and women; within these broad divisions, the wage is differentiated for under-division defined in terms of age (in case of hands and women) or of the years of employment (in case of skilled workers).

Characteristic for this type of pay-scale is the fact that the wage is the same for

group of men—men of the same grade of professional training and of about the same age. The work which is being done by the man is relatively unimportant. This type of pay scale was developed during the struggle of the workers for better wage and was connected with the man for three main reasons:

(1) The claim to a certain wage had to be stated in terms of something fixed, and defining it in terms of jobs would have given the employers ample opportunity for cheating;

(2) in the absence of adequate protection, the scale of basic wages had to guard the worker against a fall in wages at an age when his abilities will no longer permit him to carry out highly valued jobs; and

(3) these scales mirrored the fact that they were the result of struggle organized in the first place by the skilled workers and that the employers were inclined to give preferential treatment to the employees who had more value for them on account of their relative scarcity.

The basic shortcoming of this system consists in paying unequal wage for the same work, or the same wage for unequal work. And this, of course, is unjust. Apart from that, it results in the factories taking over a burden of social relief within their production costs which should reflect the quantity of the work done only. The old wage system is, therefore, being replaced by one based not upon the man but upon the work he is doing. This is, however, enabled only by the changes in the country's economic and social structure in general which give the workers a firm assurance that the reasons inducing them in the past to insist upon the old way of differentiating the pay-scales no longer hold good, the capitalist enterprises having been replaced by nationalised corporations and the part of the earnings due to social considerations having been provided for in other non-wage forms.

The new wage system is founded upon the principle that the basic wage should be differentiated according to the demands made by the job upon the worker. *i.e.* the whole set of conditions and circumstances making this or that work more or less difficult.

The basis of such a wage system must necessarily be a classification of jobs according to their objective 'difficulty' or 'value.' The criteria for ascertaining the same include:

(1) the training, education, experience and skill necessary;

(2) the responsibility for material damages and for the health, and lives of other workers;

(3) the exertion of muscles and senses involved; and

(4) external influences, such as high or low temperatures in humidity, unclean or disturbing surroundings and danger of accidents or illness.

According to these criteria, the particular job is being classified as belonging to one of eight categories; the technicians deputed to classify the jobs are working in close co-operation with the representatives of the workers, especially with trade union office bearers and officials. The characteristic jobs of the respective branches of industrial production ordered according to the eight categories, constitute a State Catalogue of Jobs which has been until now provided for a part of metal works, foundries, electricity and gas works, chemical and rubber industries, part of the food industry, wood-working, textile and ceramic works.

For each of the eight groups a wage—first, the time wage—is determined. The wage for the lowest category of the scale must guarantee to the worker an income necessary to uphold fully his ability to work and a decent standard of living. In the last analyses, the basic wage will depend

upon the general economic situation in the country, while the basis of the wage scale for different industries may also vary according to their respective importance in the country's economy in general; thus in a period of production drive in capital goods the machinery production may have higher basic wages than, say, textile industry and in a period of acute shortage of labour in the foundries the employment in them may be made more attractive to the workers by raising the whole wage scale. From the basic wage, *i.e.*, the wage of the first category upwards, the wage for every further category is by a fixed percentage higher than in the preceding one. Within the possibilities of the country's economy, this percentage must be sufficient to provide an incentive encouraging workers to qualify for and carry out jobs requiring higher skill or greater physical effort.

In accordance with these principles and after taking into account the existing wage level, a new wage scale for the metal industry, has been introduced which begins with Kcs 8,20 (about 13 annas) per hour in the first category and goes up by 12 per cent in every successive group reaching in the highest one an amount of Kes. 18,20 (*i. e.* Rs. 1-3/4):

Category	Wage per hour in Kes.
1	8,20
2	9,20
3	10,30
4	11,50
5	12,90
6	14,50
7	16,20
8	18,20

This scale applies to workers whose wages are calculated according to the time spent in the factory. In contrast to this time-wage, the piece rate is being calculated on the basis of a scale about 15 per cent higher. The rate is expressed in units of time stating the

time necessary to carry out a particular job by an average worker under the average conditions. To calculate the earnings, the number of minutes per piece is multiplied by the number of pieces produced and the result is, again, multiplied by $1/60$ of the (piece rate i.e., by 15 per cent. higher) wage of the category the job belongs to.

After explaining the principles of the new wage system, let me sketch the recent development of earnings, for which the new system, too, is partly responsible.

In an average quarter of the year, the amount of wages and salaries paid by the industry amounted to:

in 1946	10.1 milliards Kcs. (about Rs. 100 crores.)
„ 1947	12.9 milliards Kcs.
„ 1948	14.3 milliards Kcs.
„ 1949	15.5 milliards Kcs. (about Rs. 150 crores.)

In the same period, the number of persons employed was:

in 1946	1,160,000
„ 1947	1,270,000
„ 1948	1,350,000
„ 1949	1,390,000

Thus, the number of employed persons rose by about one fifth and the total earnings by one half. This indicates an increase in individual earnings during the post war period to the tune of about 25 per cent.

Another set of figures pertaining to workers' wages only, shows the difference between the structure of earnings before and after the war. First it is necessary to equalize the limits of the respective wage groups by trebling the pre-war figures, because the index of the cost of living rose in 1945 as against 1939 by about 200 per cent. Accordingly, the limit of the first group, 3,000 pre-war Crowns a year will be equal to 9,000 postwar Crowns a year and so on. Allowing thus for the changes in the price level, we receive the following picture:

In 1937, 24 per cent. workers were receiving less than 3,000 Kcs a year; in 1948 the same group (comprising wages less than 9,000 Kcs, i.e. about Rs. 900) accounted only for 8 per cent wage earners.

In 1937, 30 per cent of wage earners were getting more than Kcs. 3,000 but less than 6,000 Kcs; in 1948, the percentage in this group (comprising now wages more than Kcs. 9,000 but less than Kcs. 18,000, i.e. Rs. 1,800) went down to 8 per cent.

In 1937, 26 per cent of workers had wages between 6,000 and 9,000 Kcs; in 1948, the percentage of the same group (covering wages between Kcs. 18,000 and 27,000 i.e., Rs. 27,000) was not more than 14 per cent.

In 1937, only 10 per cent of workers drew wages from Kcs. 9,000 upto 12,000; but in 1948, the same group of wages (from Kcs. 27,000 upto 36,000 i.e., Rs. 3,600) commanded 20 per cent of worker.

And in 1937, 10 per cent of wage earners were able to have more than 12,000 a year; in 1948, however, this group (of earnings above Kcs. 36,000) comprised full 50 per cent. of workers.

Thus, the percentage of lower wages (upto pre-war Crowns 9,000 of postwar Crowns 18,000 i.e., Rs. 1,800) decreased from 80 to 30 per cent; and the percentage of higher wages (above prewar Crowns 9,000 or postwar Crowns 18,000) increased from 20 to 70 per cent.

The index of real wages is now, as already mentioned, about 150 as compared with the basis of 100 in 1939.

Now let me review a group of social activities which may be conveniently placed under the heading of non-wage care for the working population.

Working hours and rest.—Hours of work must not exceed eight hours in every twenty four or forty eight hours a week. In case of emergency, temporary extension of working hours may be allowed which, however, must

not exceed two hours a day and last more than four weeks in a year. In every week, each person employed must have at least 32 consecutive hours of rest. After five hours of work (in case of juveniles after four hours) at least 15 minutes of rest must be granted.

Paid leave and Recreation.—All persons, employed for at least six consecutive months have a claim to the following paid leave:

1st to 5th year of employment—2 weeks.

6th to 15th year of employment—3 weeks.

after the 15th year of employment—4 weeks.

Furthermore miners and workers working under conditions detrimental to their health, are given one week of leave in addition, while all workers under 18 are entitled to 3 weeks paid leave. The Trade Union Council is organizing the workers' and employees' stay, at substantially reduced prices, in spas and even on the sea coast (namely in Poland); in 1947: 82,000 persons took part; in 1948: 130,000 and; in 1949: 200,000.

Safety in work and medical help in factories.—The State provides for every region or town a special factory inspector whose chief job is to control and see that all regulations concerning working conditions (as light, space, washrooms, lavatories etc.), are put into effect, especially those pertaining to safety of work. Apart from that, bigger works employ for the designing and maintaining the safety arrangements a special safety technician. Four hundred and forty five factories, have their works doctors who, working in the factories' surgeries, are attending cases of illness and accidents, and advising management on questions of protection of workers' health.

Catering in works.—In 1948, 540,000 workers and employees (about 1/6 of the total number) and this year already 670,000 employed persons (i. e., almost 1/5 of the total) took their lunches or dinners in works'

canteens, the running cost of which are by 50 per cent. covered by the work or office.

Housing:—Under the plan for the building industry the construction of houses for workers undertaken by existing factories or to be built in places where new factories are to be erected, has a high priority. Until now, however, the housing shortage, caused by the war time ban on building of houses, still continues. The Five Year Plan has laid down a target for house building of about 9.7 million square metres. Since pre-war time, Czechoslovakia has a law forbidding the house-owner to evict a tenant unless he has very serious reason defined by the law; in the postwar period, the working population has been much helped by the provision that no rents are allowed to exceed the amount paid in 1939 although the price level in general went up by 200 per cent. Now, the rent represents only 5 per cent. in the total cost of living of an average working class family, as compared with 15 per cent. in prewar Czechoslovakia and 10—25 per cent in other countries at present.

Arrangements enabling employment of women taking care of their households.—According to a report published in the beginning of this year, about 135 factories have nurseries of their own. Apart from that, children of working mothers have priority in admission to the city and village nurseries. Under the Five Year Plan another 370 factory nurseries are to be set up which will accommodate about 18,000 children. Furthermore, large co-operative foundries are being organized in workers suburbs. Creches and foundries are, of course, being provided for villages too, the latter usually by the co-operatives.

Special legislation for women and juveniles.—Under equal conditions men and women receive equal remuneration for equal work. Along with this provision the Czechoslovak Constitution stipulates that women have the

right to special adjustments of working condition in view of pregnancy, motherhood and childwelfare. All employed women are by law prevented from working at night as well as underground and are entitled to receive full pay during 12 weeks of confinement. There are about 3,000 consultation rooms where mothers and children can receive medical advice without any charges. Workers under 18 can be employed with work that is not physically hard only and juveniles under 16 are prohibited from night-work.

Social legislation concerning families.—All employed parents receive a tax-free family allowance at the following monthly rates.

- (1) Kcs. 150 (about Rs. 15) for one child.
- (2) Kcs. 350 for two children.
- (3) Kcs. 600 for three children.
- (4) Kcs. 900 for four children.
- (5) Kcs. 1,250 for five children.
- (6) Kcs. 1,650 for six children.
- (7) Kcs. 2,100 for seven children.
- (8) Kcs. 2,600 for eight children.
- (9) Kcs. 3,100 for nine children and
- (10) Kcs. 3,600 (about Rs. 360) for 10 children.

In addition to this, tax relief is being granted to tax-payers supporting a family. Thus, in case of single persons, the tax-free income is Kcs. 1,600 (Rs. 160) a month; in case of a childless married couple the tax-free allowance is increased upto Kcs. 2,100; in addition to that first child increases this amount by Kcs. 600 (Rs. 60), the second one by Kcs. 700 (Rs. 70), the third one by Kcs. 1,000 (Rs. 100), the fourth and every additional child by Kcs. 1,200 (Rs. 120). Thus, the income-tax paid by single employed person earning Kcs. 4,000 a month amounts to Kcs. 294 while that of a married couple with two children is only Kcs. 84 a month.

The budget of the Ministry of Social

Work.—Which contains the majority of the expenditure in connection with social services so far as they are paid directly by the Exchequer, amounts to 10 per cent of the whole of the expenditure listed in State budget.

The majority of the social activities reviewed so far may be characterized as concerning the man when he is working, or in relation to his work. Now we come to the main provisions of our social policy concerning man when he is not working—to the National Insurance Scheme. National Insurance, developing the pre-war social insurance which pertained to employed persons only, provides social insurance services for all people personally working, i.e. apart from workers and employees, for peasants, craftsmen, lawyers, doctors, artists and even wives working in their own households.

A person is entitled to benefit if and because he loses his earning capacity; as a principle sickness or old age as such do not constitute the right to claim an allowance. The rate of benefit (as well as that of contribution) is being determined by means of a basis of assessment, this being all the income which the insured person derives from his or her work. The basis, however, cannot exceed Kcs. 2,400 a week, i. e., an amount about three times the average employed person's income.

Sickness Insurance Benefit.—includes, first of all, medical treatment (both at home and in hospitals, of surgeries and sanatoria) for the insured person as well as his dependants; the treatment covered by the insurance includes also dental care, treatment in cases of maiming, disfigurement and sterility. The medical service is organized on the principle of free choice among doctors working under contract with the insurance institution.

The scale of sickness benefit extends, according to the respective "basis of assess-

ment", from Kcs. 15 to Kcs. 159 a day and amounts, in the average, to about one half of the insured person's income. The benefit is being paid beginning with the day on which the insured person ceases to receive his wages and salary (the employees are, for instance, entitled to full payment from their employers for the first six weeks of illness) and the payment is continued for the whole period of incapacity for work, upto a limit of one year. In addition, after three months the benefit is increased by 10 per cent and after six months by 15 per cent. of the original rate.

In case of *maternity* the insured women or female member of the family of another insured person is entitled to free medical assistance and to the services of a midwife, or a treatment in a maternity home. Furthermore, she receives a layette (or money granted in lieu thereof) and a special (maternity) grant of Kcs. 2,500 which amount to three times the average weekly income of an employed person.

An insured woman (or female dependant on another insured person) who cares for at least one child, will be, in case of sickness, provided with a *domestic servant* or a cash compensation paid in lieu thereof. The payment of this benefit begins on the 15th day of illness and is continued during the time of illness, upto one year.

Surviving dependants of a deceased insured person are paid a *funeral grant* at a uniform rate of Kcs. 5,000 (i.e. about six times the average weekly earnings).

Pension Insurance Benefit.—A person above 60 (if insured for the last twenty years) or 65 is entitled to *old age pension* consisting of a basic rate of Kcs. 168 a week (i. e. about 1/5 of the average earning of an insured person) and, in general, of an additional rate of 28 per cent of the average weekly earnings received after 20 years of insurance and further 0.8 per cent for each

individual year. The pension must not exceed 85 per cent. of the average earnings but is not allowed to fall under Kcs. 192 a week, i.e., about 1/4 of the average weekly income of an employed person. In case of miners the minimum and maximum rates are 30 and 90 per cent, respectively and they are treated preferentially in other respects too.

In the case of loss of earning power or reduction of the same to less than one-half as a result of permanent infirmity a disability pension, calculated on the same basis as that of old ages, is being paid.

To a wife of an insured man who is either not capable of doing her usual work in the household or has reached an age of 65 a *wives pension* will be paid at a rate of Kcs. 6,000 (i.e. Rs. 600) a year.

Widows pension is being paid unconditionally for a period of one year; after that, to a widow who has lived in marriage with the insured person for at least 15 years or is disabled or has completed 45th year of age or cares for at least one child of the insured person. The amount of this benefit will be 70 per cent. of the old age or disability benefit (which would belong to the insured person) if the widow is above 45 or cares for at least one child of the insured person, or 50 per cent. in all other cases; it must not, however, fall below Kcs. 168 a week. According to the same principles, a pension for unmarried wife is granted, provided she has lived together with the insured person for at least ten years or three years if she is mother of his child.

Orphans pensions are payable to totally orphaned or partly orphaned children not in mother's care; as a rule they are being granted upto 16 years of age, but in case the child is undergoing vocational training, the paying of the pension may be extended upto 25 years of age. The pension will be at a rate of 1/2 of the old or disability

benefit and not less than Kcs. 120 a week.

In respect of children depending upon their living for a pensioner's income, a special *children's allowance* is granted at the rate of the family allowance payable in respect to children of employed persons.

An *industrial accident pension* amounts, if the accident has caused total incapacity for work, to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the income. In case of the accident having caused only a partial incapacity, the rate of pension will be reduced in proportion to the degree of the remaining capacity for work; it must not, however, fall under 20 per cent of amount paid in case of a full disability.

A *marriage grant* is being paid at a rate of Kcs. 5,000, i.e., more than six times the average weekly income.

To *uninsured* Czechoslovak citizens who are above 65 or are infirm and in need of assistance, a social pension will be granted to replace the previous undignified and humiliating private assistance to the poor. The pension will amount to Kcs. 168 (Rs. 17) a week; when paid to a married or unmarried couple it will amount to Kcs. 252 (Rs. 25); when paid to an orphaned child, it will amount to Kcs. 120 (Rs. 12/-) a week.

Contributions.—to be paid are determined separately for sickness and pension insurance. For the first one, the contribution amounts, in case of employed persons to 6.8 per cent. of income, in case of civil servants to 5 per cent and in case of self-employed persons to 6.7 per cent. The contribution for the pension and accident insurance together will be paid at a rate of 11 per cent from the insured persons income. The insured employed person is paying *one half* of the total contribution, the other half being contributed by his employer; this arrangement is, however, only temporary because the National Insurance Act contains a provision according to which the whole contri-

bution will be paid by the employer only. Other sources of funds are subsidies from the Exchequer; in the next six years they will amount to Kcs. 54,000,000.

In the financial provisions an interesting principle of modern social insurance finds expression. The rates of benefit will be in the long run automatically adapted to the living costs. In this way, the amount paid in form of benefits is linked to the national income. Consequently, the total expenditure is always covered from current results of nation's work. The insured person is not paying contribution to accumulate capital out of which the pensions for him will be paid in future; on the contrary, by his contribution he is providing funds for the pensions currently paid and his pensions will be in future paid by those earning and producing at that time. Thus, no accumulation of substantial reserves is necessary.

The Total Amount.—to be redistributed by the National Insurance is for the current year estimated at about 13 per cent of the national income, the pre-war figure amounting only to 8 per cent. I would like to sum up in a few words what I have been trying to tell you in the course of this talk.

I began with a survey of Czechoslovak economy because I wanted to draw your attention to the necessity of approaching the 'social' policy via the economic one. To our mind the 'social' questions are essentially economic questions and we, accordingly, believe that they can be successfully tackled only from their economic side.

In the next two chapters concerning employment and wage-policy, I wanted to show you how these problems cease to be 'social' in the sense of something involving charity or undesired help. If they are treated as social in the sense of something concerning the organisation and working of the *society* as a whole, i.e. if treated as questions of the

economic basis of the society's existence and tackled with the help of economic system based upon abolishing the capitalists and of an comprehensive Economic Plan.

In the further two chapters dealing with non-wage care for working population & National Insurance I tried to point out how the safe economic basis and the founding of the economy upon the social ownership of means of production make it possible to give a much higher part of the national income for satisfying the social needs in the narrower sense of the word.

The net result of this kind of approach to the social problems is full employment, continuous rise in *wages* and in the standard of living, fast developing of the care for working population and a

substantial bettering of the conditions of people unable to work.

And however humble we may feel among the big nations of the world we are rather proud to say that in the relatively small country of ours we have solved some of the most important economic and social problems of today and, in spite of the many difficulties facing us and all the hard day-to-day work to be done, we are laying the foundations for solving the big problems of tomorrow, concerned directly with the building up of a socialist society which, as we firmly believe, will make the life of man happier and richer.

There were interesting questions and answers after Mr. Pokorný's paper.

AN HISTORICAL SURVEY OF SOCIAL SERVICES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Mr. L. R. Philips representative of the British Council in India read a paper giving a lucid account of the welfare work in the United Kingdom at the third meeting of the Symposium, on Dec. 29, 1949, at 10 a.m.

The earliest social services in Britain were provided by various religious orders, augmented in mediaeval times by the manor houses and Merchant and Craft Guilds, who took upon themselves as part of their duties and responsibilities the care of the sick and destitute.

This custom fell into disuse with the decay of the feudal system and the dissolution of the monasteries, and for a long period very little was done towards the alleviation of distress among those who lacked the means to help themselves.

By the end of the sixteenth century vagrancy and destitution had increased so much that it had become imperative to find some substitute for the old system. In 1601, therefore, the *Poor Law Act* was passed, which,

by making it incumbent upon the local authorities to provide for the sick, the needy and the homeless from local rates, established the principle that the care of the poor was a necessary part of the social organisation of the State.

Full understanding or acceptance of this principle was naturally enough very slow, and the greatest contribution to the social services during the next two hundred years came not from the State but from private sources. The eighteenth century, while witnessing a striking evolution in scientific and social outlook leading to the birth of humanitarianism in politics, was remarkable more for the achievements of philanthropists and evangelists than for any measures of State-inspired reform.

During the eighteenth century—between 1720 and 1750—eleven of London's great voluntary hospitals were founded, as well as 37 in the provinces and nine in Scotland. In the educational field, the Charity Schools, established mainly through the Society for

Promoting Christian Knowledge, did some excellent work; while the Sunday Schools, founded in 1780, began their fight against illiteracy by teaching, reading, writing and sometimes "cyphering," as well as, religious doctrine. At this time too, the work of the pioneers in preventive medicine—men, for instance, such as Dr. Richard Mead, Dr. John Pringle and Dr. James Lind—succeeded in bringing about much-needed sanitary reforms in the army, the navy, and to a lesser extent in industrial undertakings.

Industrial Revolution and After.—These innovations and reforms were progressive for their time. But they proved inadequate, as did the old Poor Law, to stem the tide of the distress loosed by the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution was the force that drove the social services forward in the nineteenth century, at first slowly and despite opposition, guided by the efforts of isolated men and women outraged by the effects of conditions in mines and factories upon the lives of those who worked in them. Later, as public apathy towards the management of domestic affairs and suspicion of State interference grew less, and the value of the services to the community became obvious to all, a growing measure of State support became possible.

There was nothing uniform about the early development of the social services. Like most British institutions, they grew up at different speeds and with a different pattern—their new growth was impelled more by some pressing need or by some visionary idea than by any obligation felt to implement a set and finished plan. Thus, in some of the services notably those connected with industrial health and welfare, State intervention took place at a comparatively early stage, so that voluntary provision became supplementary, and subject to a certain amount of statutory control. In other fields such as education and, later, mater-

nity and child welfare, the State and private organisations continued for years as equal or almost equal partners. The law gave local authorities power to organise and operate services, but it did not compel them to do so, and as a general rule voluntary associations were given every encouragement, including grants from the public purse, to carry on their work.

An Act of 1802 marked the beginning of factory legislation, and in 1833, the first substantial factory act was passed. This act limited hours of work for children and set up a national system of inspection. The Act of 1847 set a maximum of ten hours a day on women's as well as children's work; meanwhile the Act of 1844 had introduced the first safety measures. (The scope of all these early acts was limited to certain factories, mainly textile.) The first *Workmen's Compensation Act*, making the payment of compensation for accidents at work compulsory and an employer's liability, was passed in 1897.

The early factory acts prescribed for employed children a certain minimum number of hours' education each week. Successive acts increased this minimum until it was no longer necessary in view of the raising of the age limit below which employment was illegal and the introduction of compulsory education.

The State began to take an active part in education in 1870 when the *School Board Act* provided for the setting-up of schools in areas where the voluntary societies, which had been receiving State grants since 1833, had not already established them. By the end of the century when, in 1899, the Board of Education was created, elementary education had become compulsory and free and available to every child.

Environmental health services were comparatively early recognised as matters for official action. The first true sanitary measure, the *Public Health Act* of 1848, was

passed just over a hundred years ago. In the personal health services, on the other hand, the voluntary aspect has remained uppermost until the present day. Voluntary hospitals under their own management existed side by side with municipal hospitals under the management of the local authorities, until the coming into force in 1948 of the *National Health Service Act*, both making their own and distinctive contributions to the welfare of the community as a whole.

This historical development has made for a wider variety of provision, with a consequently greater element of choice in the services than would otherwise have been possible. It has also made for greater flexibility both in administration and in operation, so that when improvements become necessary they can be made without entirely dislocating the service or services concerned.

Twentieth Century.—Even before the first World War, it had become generally accepted that social services should not be regarded as a form of charity, but rather as one of the natural benefits available to citizens of a civilised state ranking equally with defence, justice and law and order. By 1911, form had been given to this acceptance by the passing of the first *Old age Pensions Act* (1908) and *National Insurance Act* (1911); and the foundations of the modern system were laid.

Since that date, steady progress has been made in all branches of the social services. Stimulated by the experiences of the first World War, which like all wars aggravated existing social problems and created new ones, the State increased its powers and pushed ahead with the development of those services which might help to solve them. It was during the inter-war years that State support for the maternity and infant welfare services began to make itself felt. Between the passing of the *Maternity and Child*

Welfare Act in 1918, which gave local authorities power to provide clinics and similar services, and the outbreak of the second World War, the number of Maternity and infant welfare centres increased enormously. So did the number of midwives, maternity nurses and health visitors, until it was reckoned in 1938 that 95 per cent. of all babies born in England and Wales were visited at least once during the first year of their lives, while a slightly smaller proportion received regular visits. This increase in numbers was accompanied all the time by heightened standards, so that there were not only many more but also much better-trained people to look after the health and general welfare of mothers and young children.

These years also saw the establishment of day nurseries and nursery classes for children under the statutory school age, so that children whose mothers were for one reason or another unable to look after them need not suffer from neglect; they saw the provision of special schools for handicapped children, so that these children should have a chance of making something of their lives; they saw the expansion of the school medical services and the growing provision of free milk and meals in schools, so that children whose parents were unable to provide for them in these ways should not thereby be deprived of the medical attention and nourishment necessary to their age. Finally they saw efforts made to improve the State primary and elementary schools, and to provide some sort of further education for those young people obliged to leave school too young. The *Education Act* of 1918 raised the upper age of compulsory attendance at school to the end of the term in which the pupil reached his fourteenth birthday; it charged the local education authorities with the duty of providing advanced instruction and practical training for older

children in senior departments or central schools; and it made provision for the establishment of part-time compulsory attendance at day continuation schools for boys and girls between 14 and 18 who had given up full-time schooling, although the post-war depression stood in the way of the full implementation of this part of the Act. The determination, however, to see it put into general operation remained.

Nor was it only the children who benefited from the post-war awareness of what was due to the ordinary citizen in a civilised State. Between 1919 and 1939, the State through the local authorities assumed additional and specific responsibilities (either directly, or indirectly by financial support) for the care of the blind, the crippled and the chronically unfit. Steps were taken to deal more effectively and humanely with socially significant diseases, such as mental disorder or deficiency, tuberculosis and the venereal diseases. To take one example only: between 1912 when local authorities had permissive powers to establish dispensaries and sanatoria for patients suffering from tuberculosis, and 1938 when for seventeen years (since the passing of the *Public Health (Tuberculosis) Act, 1921*) they had been obliged to do so, the number of beds provided had increased from about 5,000 to 30,000, and a comprehensive dispensary service had been established, which included the provision of dental treatment, home nursing and the supply of extra nourishment for patients living at home.

Advances made in curative services such as these were matched by developments in the preventive and general services. The whole question of working conditions in factories came under review, and in 1937 a new *Factory Act* was passed to raise the health, safety and welfare standards. Miners' welfare was inaugurated on a national scale while some of the larger commercial com-

panies began to extend their own welfare services and to create new ones. The practice of appointing full-time or part-time doctors and nurses for supervisory duties in factories and workshops began, for instance, to be much more widely adopted.

Other important milestones in the inter-war period were the *Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act, 1925* and the *Unemployment Act, 1934* which set up the Unemployment assistance Board (later to become the National Assistance Board).

Between 1919 and 1939, four million houses were built and a promising start was made with slum clearance and the alleviation and prevention of overcrowding. Moreover the idea of town and country planning as a prerequisite to the proper dispersal of the people throughout the country was beginning to gain acceptance. By setting up the Barlow Commission in 1939 to study the whole question of the distribution of the industrial population from a social and economic standpoint, the State showed its determination that development in future should proceed in a way likely to benefit the health and happiness of the greatest number of people, and that the spoilation of the countryside should cease.

Thus by 1939, the social services included a number of public medical services, e.g., the maternity and child welfare services, the school medical services, the industrial welfare services, services for the treatment of infectious diseases, services for the prevention and treatment of diseases which deeply affect the community, such as tuberculosis and venereal diseases, voluntary and local authority services and nursing and midwifery services; State-provided or State-aided education for children up to and including the age of fourteen; a national health insurance system; old age pensions; poor relief; and provision for the control and subsidisation of housing and the super-

vision of town planning. This system of social services was good, judged by the standards of the time. It had, however, its defects; it was not comprehensive and there were gaps and inadequacies.

None of these services were imposed by the State upon an unwilling public. All of them were the result of co-operative effort between the successive Governments and the people whom they governed. As the new ideas were born and translated into reality, there was no attempt to destroy the spirit of voluntary service which had in many cases inspired them. Where voluntary organisations were doing good work, they were encouraged to continue, whether it was in school, hospital, or factory, or in the provision of houses. It was the function of the State to supplement the services and provide financial assistance, to see that they were brought within the reach of every citizen, to ensure that the necessary standards were maintained, and to hold a balance so that the needs of everyone should be considered and as far as possible should be met.

Post War Planning.—The same combined purpose is behind new legislation placed on the Statute Book since 1944 to extend the scope and increase the benefits of the social services and to bring them into a more co-ordinated, comprehensive and so more efficient whole. And a further step forward has been taken by the State in accepting increased direct responsibility.

Some of the outlines for this planned expansion were drawn during and because of the second World War, when for the second time within thirty years the unsettled and peculiar conditions of a wartime existence focussed attention upon the weaknesses and gaps in the existing system and stimulated the desire to extend and improve it. The problems of evacuation showed, for instance, that there were considerable inequalities between some of the medical services pro-

vided in the town and in the country, and that many country places were still inadequately served. The call-up of young men into the army showed that in spite of progress since the first World War, there was still much to be desired in the standard of their physical fitness and of their intellectual attainments, and that the need to extend the school-leaving age and to provide further education as well as extra opportunities for physical training was an imperative one. The six years' standstill in housebuilding accompanied by the destructive effect of air bombardment swept away all the good effects of the pre-war campaign against the slums and overcrowding and left behind it a shortage of housing accommodation unequalled after the first World War.

No time was lost in introducing measures aimed at combating these and other weaknesses—at bridging these and other gaps. Some of these measures were purely temporary and ended with the ending of the war. Some have passed permanently into the social service system. The national nutrition schemes, which supply free or cheap milk and vitamin supplements to mothers and young children, and meals to many more school-children than ever before are, for instance, to go on. Similarly the practice, adopted during the war by the Minister of Health and certain of the local authorities, of employing Welfare Officers to be responsible for the welfare of those evacuated is continuing for the benefit of other children and old people.

And these measures were only a part of the constructive work done during the war years. It was during these years that the idea of social security for all "from cradle to grave" was first given expression under official auspices in the now famous Beveridge Report on "Social Insurance and Allied Services" published in 1942. Its recommendations rested on three assumptions:

- (a) a system of children's allowances;
- (b) comprehensive health and rehabilitation services for all;
- (c) the avoidance of mass unemployment.

It laid down three main principles:

- (1) that future proposals should be guided, not fettered by the past;
- (2) that the organisation of social insurance should be treated as one part only of a comprehensive policy of social progress; and
- (3) that social security must be achieved by co-operation between the individual and the State.

The project of a new national health service was first discussed and presented to the public in a White Paper (Cmd. 6502, February, 1944) for its consideration and its views. The educational system of the country came again under review, with the result that a new *Education Act* (1944) was passed (effective April, 1945) raising the school-leaving age to fifteen (effective April, 1947) and providing for a subsequent advance to sixteen and making other far-reaching and progressive reforms. And it was during the war that preliminary steps were taken to see that the mistakes made in the housing programme and the policy of town and country planning after the first World War were not repeated in a second post-war world.

A Comprehensive System.—Since the end of the Second World War, many of these outlines have been filled in by legislation. The *Family Allowances Act* 1945 (effective August, 1946), the *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act*, 1946 (effective 5th July, 1948) and the *National Insurance Act*, 1946 (fully effective 5th July, 1948), were all based on the proposals in the Beveridge Report. The *Education Act*, 1946 clarified and extended certain parts of the 1944 Act, so that its provisions could be carried out

more quickly and easily in a still unsettled world. The *National Health Service Act*, 1947 (also effective 5th July, 1948) established the machinery for operating the new health services, while the *New Towns Act*, 1946 and the *Town and Country Planning Act*, 1947 (effective 1st July 1948) created the conditions necessary for rebuilding Britain in a national and ordered way.

Finally, the *National Assistance Act*, 1948 provides for assistance to the needy as a right, and removes the last traces of the old Poor Law, whilst the *Children Act*, 1948, provides for the better care of and a more equal chance in life for, the child who lacks normal parental care. These acts also took effect on 5th July, 1948.

In some of these Acts, the pattern suggested in the original discussions has been closely followed, but with increased benefits. In others, and particularly in the National Health Service Act, very considerable changes have been made. But in all cases the basic idea has remained the same—that every child or citizen of Britain, whatever the circumstances of his birth, shall be assured freedom from insecurity, anxiety and want and equal opportunities in regard to health, education and employment.

Naturally, this new comprehensive system of social services cannot begin to show its full effect at once. Naturally there will still be a few gaps to be filled and opportunities for further improvement, and more may show themselves as time goes on. But what has already been done is enough to show that in Britain the spirit of social progress is active and vital, and that its aim is to secure, with their help and their co-operation, the general well-being and happiness of the country's citizens.

An interesting and lively discussion followed Mr. Phillips' paper.

AUSTRALIA'S SOCIAL SECURITY PROGRAMME.

At 5 p.m. on the same day (29th December 1949) Miss Nell J. Camcron, Australian observer at the Conference, described social welfare programmes in her country at the resumed meeting of the symposium on "Social Work Abroad".

Certain features of Australia and Australian life have influenced the social development of the country to give it an individual character. Both history and geography have combined from the beginning to emphasise the importance of the governing authority. This fact needs to be understood in order to see the present day relationship of the social services provided by Commonwealth, State, Municipal and voluntary agencies.

The first settlements in Australia were followed slowly by the growth of small communities at widely separated points in the Commonwealth. These eventually became organised into the six States, each having clearly defined boundaries and a form of self-government modelled closely on that of the United Kingdom. Thus federation in 1901 was really the fusion into one nation of a people already enjoying the advantages of well organised and efficient government, and of a people to whom the government was from the very early days a main source of supply and to which their minds turned inevitably when a social problem arose.

Many of the experiments in social service which had earned Australia its reputation of being at the beginning of this century "The social laboratory of the world," were developed in the six States during the second half of the nineteenth century. The Federal Constitution of 1901 was for the most part drawn up by men who had been prominent in State affairs, and while it conferred upon the new Federal Parliament certain powers

to legislate for the peace, order and good government of the Commonwealth, the States remained autonomous and retained authority to pass laws, having force in their own territories. In the Constitution, specific federal powers in the social welfare field were confined to quarantine and invalid and old age pensions, but a further power to grant financial assistance to any State on prescribed conditions was given, and it has been largely used in the field of public health.

Thus, very important functions relating to health, education, child welfare, delinquency, factory legislation, workmen's compensation and community services were State responsibilities. This still applies, and the States spend annually, large sums of money on maternal and infant welfare, on all forms of education, on public health, on institutions for children, old people, and the mentally ill, on relief, housing, and many general forms of social services.

An outline of the services given by Commonwealth, State, Municipal and voluntary agencies will perhaps give some conception of the inter-related pattern of social service in Australia today.

The developing Role of the Commonwealth.— Since Federation, the Commonwealth Government has taken an increasing interest in social services and its welfare policy may be said to be truly national in outlook, character and scope. The first Federal social service was the old age pension, which began to operate in 1909 and was followed in 1910 by the introduction of invalid pensions. These pensions replaced schemes in States such as New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland, which had already legislated for old age pensions. In 1912 came maternity allowances to provide assistance

for mothers in meeting the costs involved at a birth. After this there was a period of more than 25 years when very little was achieved as far as the Federal Government was concerned, though several of the States were active in adding social measures to their statute books.

From 1939 there has been a very great extension of Commonwealth activity in social services, and Australia has shown the same surge of interest in social services that has been making itself vitally felt in so many other countries of the world. Much of the planning and advice on this activity has been supplied by the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Social Security, which Parliament established for this purpose, and the reports of this committee have been, as it were, blue prints for Australia's social security programme. In 1941 Child Endowment was introduced, followed by a Widow's Pension Scheme in 1942. In 1943 came a new form of Maternity Allowance and also Funeral Benefits for old age and invalid pensioners, and in 1944 an Unemployment and Sickness Benefit Act was passed.

Because there was some question as to the validity of these services under the constitution, and because the Commonwealth Government wished to legislate on an expanding number of other social services, a referendum was held in 1946 seeking power to alter the constitution. A majority of electors in a majority of states voted in favour of the social services question in the referendum and this placed beyond doubt the power of the Commonwealth Parliament to provide a wide range of social services. This power is not exclusive to the Commonwealth but may be exercised concurrently by the various States. This position, however, is governed by section 109 of the Constitution which provides, in effect, that where there is any inconsistency between the laws of the Commonwealth and those of the States in

relation to any joint field, the laws of the Commonwealth shall prevail.

Administration of Federal Services.—The Commonwealth Department of Social Services is responsible for the administration of the legislation covering:—

- (1) Maternity Allowances.
- (2) Child Endowment.
- (3) Unemployment and Sickness Benefits
- (4) Widows' Pensions.
- (5) Age pensions.
- (6) Invalid Pensions.
- (7) Funeral Benefits.

Maternity allowances provide a lump sum payment to mothers in Australia to help them meet some of the expenses associated with the birth of children.

Child endowment, a form of family allowance, provides a weekly payment on behalf of all children under 16 years of age except one in each family. It is generally assumed that wages are fixed in Australia with regard to the needs of a man, his wife and one child, and child endowment represents an attempt to give equal advantage to children in larger families.

Unemployment and Sickness benefits are paid to individuals who through unemployment, sickness or accident, suffer temporary loss of their regular earnings.

A large number of women, deprived of the support of their husbands, are helped by means of widows' pensions. These benefits provide a regular allowance for legal widows but also for deserted and divorced wives and women whose husbands are in gaols or mental hospitals. Widows with the care of young children generally receive a higher allowance than those without.

Age pensions provide for the security of men over 65 years of age and women over 60 years and invalid pensions are available to men and women permanently incapacitated for work or permanently blind.

A special Funeral Benefit is paid to persons responsible for the charges of burial of these two latter types of pensioners.

Early in 1948, the government announced the details of a new rehabilitation scheme which provides for the rehabilitation including treatment, vocational training and placement in employment of certain groups of people suffering from disabilities. Invalid pensioners and unemployment and sickness beneficiaries are among the groups to whom the scheme extends. As a temporary measure this scheme is being organised by the Department of Post-war Reconstruction and it will revert later to the Department of Social Services with whom responsibility for its administration rests.

Prior to June 1947, these various social services were covered by many different Acts. With the passage of time, certain portions of the existing legislation had become obsolete whilst differing provisions in sections of a somewhat similar character in the Acts relating to the various benefits had produced confusion and anomalies. For these reasons, Parliament passed the Social Services Consolidation Act, which aimed to eliminate obsolete sections, remove anomalies, amalgamate certain sections of the administration and generally to modernise the legislation. At the same time the Government took advantage of the opportunity to provide substantial increases in the rates of invalid and age pensions, wives' allowances and widows' pensions, and to liberalise and improve many of the existing provisions.

Mention should also be made of the fact that in 1943, after the Commonwealth and New Zealand Government had completed an agreement the Parliaments of both countries passed an Act establishing reciprocity in connection with invalid and age pensions, and this year it has been extended to include the other main benefits. This agreement

marks an interesting development in inter-dominion relations and many visualise the extension of such mutually beneficial arrangements with other parts of the British Commonwealth. The first tentative steps concerning this were taken in May 1947 when an Empire Conference was held in London to consider and explore such matters.

Certain other Social Services are administered by the Commonwealth Department of Health which has numerous and important functions. These include the administration of the Hospital Benefits Act, the Tuberculosis Act, the Pharmaceutical Benefits Act, and the National Health Service Act.

The Hospital benefits provided under the Hospital Benefits Act of 1945 result from an agreement between the States and the Commonwealth by which a subsidy is paid for each bed occupied in any public or approved private hospital. Thus a citizen is entitled to treatment in a public hospital without fee and, if treated elsewhere, the cost to him is reduced by the amount of the benefit.

The Tuberculosis Act of 1948 makes provision for the Commonwealth to reimburse the States for the Capital expenditure and maintenance of facilities and services for the diagnosis, treatment and control of tuberculosis. It also sets up an Advisory Council to advise the Minister on standards and general needs in this matter. In addition, finance is available to the State Health Departments to provide allowances for sufferers from tuberculosis and their dependants. These allowances are in addition to invalid pension payments granted to tuberculous persons and the aim of the allowances is to increase income to an amount sufficient to induce the sufferer to cease work and undertake treatment.

A Pharmaceutical Benefits Act providing free medicines for all persons ordinarily

resident in Australia has been passed but is as yet (October, 1949) only operating to a limited extent.

Another social service which is the concern of the Department of Health is the promotion of national fitness. A National Fitness Council was set up by the Commonwealth Parliament in 1938, providing for grants to State National Fitness Councils which, it was mutually agreed, should be set up by the State Governments to promote the physical, mental and spiritual fitness of citizens. In 1941 a National Fitness Act was passed by the Commonwealth Parliament to ensure greater permanence to the movement. Financial and other assistance, is also made to the universities to establish and maintain training facilities for physical education instruction. Frequent conferences of Commonwealth and State leaders are held and, through the appointment of Commonwealth National Fitness Officers, coordination is ensured.

The Department of Health is also interested in the care of the pre-school child and, in any account of social services, this should be mentioned. Realising the need for greater effort throughout Australia for the care of the growing child, especially during this period, the Commonwealth Government decided to give a lead by making possible a demonstration of practical methods in the care of the pre-school child. It therefore, established in 1938 in each capital city a demonstration centre and secured the co-operation of the Federal organisation of the Kindergarten Union which operates under the title of "The Australian Association for Pre-School Child Development." Suitable land was secured in each capital city and the necessary structures were built. These centers are known throughout Australia as the Lady Gowrie Child Centres. The administration of these centres is under the direction of the local Kindergarten Union

but the employment of staff and the technical methods used are subject to the approval of the Commonwealth Department of Health. Along with this educational practice, there is carried on a study of the physiological requirements of the child and of the interaction between the physical and mental health under varying conditions. The medical work at each of the State centres is pursued on a uniform basis, the scheme being directed from the Australian Institute of Anatomy, a part of the Department of Health, where parallel investigations on the laboratory side are undertaken. With the exception of maternity allowances, Child Endowment, Hospital Benefits and pharmaceutical benefits, all pensions and benefits are subject to a means test.

Mention should be made briefly of several other Commonwealth services. There is the Commonwealth Employment Service which was set up in 1946 to provide employees and employers with advice on suitable employment and labour opportunities. Vocational guidance facilities, which at present are used mainly for juveniles and ex-service-men, are available as part of this service. The Housing Directorate of the Department of Works and Housing administers for the Commonwealth Government the Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement under which the Commonwealth and State Governments are co-operating in a plan to provide good standard homes for letting to families at rentals within their means, and in certain circumstances for sale. An important feature of the Agreement is a system of rental rebates, the basic principle of which is that families earning the basic wage or less need not pay more than one fifth of their income in rent, regardless of the economic rent of the dwelling.

One particular aspect of the work of the Universities Commission could be included. This is the plan which provides financial

aid for university students whether they live at home or not. University fees and an instrument allowance may be paid in addition. This assistance is subject to a means test.

Finance of Commonwealth Social Services.—Most of the Commonwealth social services that have been outlined in this paper are financed from the National Welfare Fund which was established in 1943. This Fund is formed from three sources—firstly, from social service contributions which are levied on individuals at a graduated rate, according to income and family responsibilities, the rate rising to 1/6d. in the £; secondly, from a pay-roll tax collected on all pay-rolls in excess of £20 per week; and thirdly, from any necessary supplementation from consolidated revenue.

The social services paid from this National Welfare Fund include the following:—

- (1) Maternity Allowances.
- (2) Child Endowment.
- (3) Unemployment and Sickness Benefits.
- (4) Widow's Pensions.
- (5) Age Pensions.
- (6) Invalid Pensions.
- (7) Funeral Benefits.
- (8) Hospital Benefits.
- (9) Tuberculosis Benefits.
- (10) Pharmaceutical Benefits.
- (11) Rental Rebates under the Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement.

State Government Services:—The State Government Social Services are more difficult to discuss in a limited period than are the Commonwealth Services which are national in outlook. With six distinct State governing bodies in the Commonwealth, it is not surprising that the legislation for social services varies considerably from one part of Australia to another. However, in general, State social services are intended to provide assistance to individuals in the following periods or events of life: early

infancy, childhood, mental or physical ill-health, industrial accidents, low income periods particularly unemployability, parenthood, and old age. These services, while not providing for all eventualities from the cradle to the grave, do provide during childhood and adult life for the needs of the majority of citizens. It should be noted that State services do not cater only for citizens in the low income groups, nor are they all of a curative nature. Those provided during infancy, childhood and parenthood, are largely preventive in character and are used by the majority of people.

Probably one of the best known and most used social service provided by the State Governments is that for infants. In most States a section of the State Health Department is responsible for the welfare of mothers and babies. These sections either conduct or supervise infant welfare centres in metropolitan and country areas. These centres provide ante, and post-natal advice to mothers on safeguarding their own and their babies' health, on diet, clothing, and general preparation for motherhood. In the post-natal period, they help mothers by giving a regular check on their babies' health and development and by giving advice on feeding and other difficulties.

The Public Health services provided by the States include both preventive and curative measures. On the preventive side all the States have established an authority responsible for the supervision of the production, manufacture and sale of all kinds of foods and drugs, sanitation and general public health. On the curative side, Health Departments assist with the administration of the hospital services. The arrangements of this administration vary in each State with the degree of government supervision or control. In addition some States actually conduct Public Hospitals, and all States maintain mental

hospital services and sanatoria for the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis.

The State Governments were for many years the only governmental organisations dealing with the welfare of children, and although the Commonwealth has in the last decade concerned itself with child health and welfare, the States are still in the main responsible for the detailed work in child welfare.

The first duty of Departments responsible for child welfare in most States is to exercise a general oversight of the welfare of children. This is primarily designed to protect children whose parents are not providing a satisfactory home life and upbringing for them or are suspected of being unable to do this. All State Governments make grants in money to parents in necessitous circumstances, particularly to mothers deprived of normal support by the father. Payment is made to both married and unmarried mothers, and to a deserted, divorced or widowed mother. In addition to such grants, the Child Welfare Departments are responsible for ensuring the provision of homes and institutions for children who are neglected or delinquent or uncontrollable. Often these homes are conducted by voluntary organisations and in such cases the State then makes a grant to the institution for the care of the children placed there.

Some service in connection with the adoption of children is performed by all Child Welfare Departments, and this varies from simple advice and help with adoptions to compulsory registration of adoption or investigation of all claims for adoption.

Certain services for children are also connected with the educational facilities the provision of which is a responsibility of the State Governments. Training is provided for mentally deficient children and some of the school medical services include child guidance clinics and speech therapy clinics,

while some form of vocational guidance is available in all States.

Relief giving has long been in importance in the State social services programme. During the depression of the early 1930's, indeed up to five years ago, the States were the chief governmental agency distributing relief to those in need. Since then the Commonwealth's extended lists of benefits have made provision for very many categories of people who previously applied to the States when in need. The States still make grants to those who cannot satisfy the conditions necessary for receipt of Federal benefits, and in some State supplementary benefits are given where special need exists. People not eligible for Federal benefits are in the main widows, invalids and old people who have not lived in Australia for long enough period, and there are also individuals who are ill or unemployed and who cannot prove loss of income or previous employment—all of whom are nevertheless in need. All States make some provision for people who are not eligible for other benefits.

The erection of houses, primarily for the lower income groups, has become one of the major social services of most Australian states since 1937. In some States, government housing programmes began as part of a slum clearance campaign. The need to ensure satisfactory healthy dwellings and to condemn some existing houses as unsuitable for human habitation led to the need for providing alternative housing for those families living in condemned houses. Later, it was realised that, in addition to this need, it was the duty of the State to provide houses for rental to families for whom private enterprise found it unprofitable to provide. This is being done mainly under the Commonwealth State Housing agreement mentioned earlier.

In most States government departments

maintain institutions and hospitals for the care of aged men and women. These vary considerably in respect to the facilities and service which they provide. In nearly all cases they provide for bedridden old people and for old people who can look after themselves to some extent. A few of the States homes have the cottage type of care but most are of the institution type. In all these homes Commonwealth pensioners are paid an allowance and the balance of their pension is paid to the institution concerned.

Local Government and Voluntary Agencies:—To complete the picture of social services in Australia, something must be said of both local governments and the large group of voluntary agencies which provide for needs unmet by either Federal or State governments. These are both difficult to describe as not only do they vary between the States, but also within each State there are wide variations.

On the whole, the role of local government in social services is increasing rapidly and more and more services are coming under local control. This represents a real change as the organisation of social services in Australia was from the beginning much more centralised than in a country such as Britain and only in the last few decades have local governments assumed any real importance in this direction.

Extension of local government social services has been carried further in the two most populous States of the Commonwealth—New South Wales and Victoria. They have developed services in connection with health, education, relief, the family and recreation.

One of the first and best known services conducted by municipal governments is the provision of infant welfare centres. The administration and financing of these centres represents one of the most fruitful pieces of co-operation between State and municipal

government and individual citizens. The land and buildings are usually provided by the municipal council, which also makes a grant to the centre. The State is responsible for their general supervision and pays the salary of the nurses in charge of the centres. A local committee of residents is usually responsible for the administration of the general affairs of the centre and for the raising of additional finance where necessary.

Municipal libraries are educational services provided by local government. Some of these libraries are old and do not contain much up-to-date material, but others are good. Some have special children's libraries and, in most cases, books are free of charge to the readers.

Local governments interest themselves in other charitable services in an indirect way generally, making monetary grants to charitable and relief organisations serving their districts. However, the provision of recreational facilities is a direct service of the municipalities and parks, gardens and playing areas have become so much a part of the municipality's work that they have often been overlooked. The supervised playgrounds for children living in certain districts have become a feature in both Melbourne and Sydney. Though in the first case they are organised by a voluntary society and in the latter by the municipalities. This is indicative of the close interrelations of the services of voluntary bodies and local government.

As in other countries, the voluntary agencies in Australia have a considerable role to play in assisting individuals whose need is greater than the average—particularly those whose disability or family responsibility is greater. Apart from this role of supplementing the work of statutory agencies, the voluntary agencies are also explorers of the fields to which statutory

agencies have not extended. Perhaps one of the most important functions of voluntary agencies is in pioneering new services to meet previously unmet needs. This has been seen in the history of many social services in Australia, particularly in such fields as health, child welfare, family welfare, care of ex-service personnel, reformatory work and recreational activities.

However, certain features of Australian life such as its tremendous distances, the lack of a leisured class, the difficulties of life in a new land, meant that Australia never developed the tradition of voluntary service to community welfare to the extent this existed in other lands. Private social agencies did develop, but they had never at any stage of Australian history acquired the prestige or wielded the influence they have had in some other parts of the world.

In Australia, some voluntary agencies are Commonwealth-wide having branches in each State, and some confine their activities to one or two States, and others, while not linked in a federal organisation, exist on a similar basis in all States. In the health field, there are general and special hospitals, ambulance services, district nursing societies and bush nursing associations operating in all states which are the work of voluntary organisations. One unusual health service is the Flying Doctor service of Australia. The aim of this organisation is to safeguard the health of isolated residents in the outback areas of the Commonwealth. This is done by making modern medical and nursing facilities available by aviation and radio communication.

Voluntary organisations, which specialise in helping particular handicapped groups, are seen in all States, important among them being the Blind, Deaf and Dumb Institutes, the societies for crippled children and the Australian Association for Better Hearing.

In the child welfare field their work

ranges from the organisation of facilities for the care of mothers and babies, through the provision of pre-school care facilities, to the organisation of homes to care for orphan, neglected and delinquent children who are not cared for by the State.

There are the societies caring for ex-service personnel such as the Australian Red Cross Society, the Returned Soldiers' League, the Legacy Club and numerous others catering for particular groups of ex-servicemen. Several of the capital cities have established Councils of Social Agencies to co-ordinate and plan the services of the community. This is a most important service in itself as overlapping and unnecessary activity may occur in one field of welfare while another is undeveloped. The existence of such an agency ensures that, despite the multiplicity of social agencies, both statutory and voluntary, all agencies work toward the welfare of the community, and no gaps or overlapping remain long in the social service framework.

Professional social work and training is one of the more recent developments which has taken place over the last twenty years.

Again, the origin was in the voluntary social agencies, which found the demands made on their services to be more than could be met by charitably-disposed voluntary workers with only a limited amount of time to give to personal work.

They therefore sought to employ specially selected people to do this type of work, but realised almost immediately that an interest in people and their problems was not in itself sufficient equipment for a social worker.

As a result training courses were instituted by some voluntary agencies in the two largest capital cities, and these were gradually expanded until some eight or ten years ago the Universities of Sydney, Melbourne, and Adelaide each incorporated a Depart-

ment of Social Studies, with a regular Diploma course.

Recognition of the successful placement of trained social workers in voluntary agencies and hospitals resulted in some senior members of the profession being called to give evidence before the Joint Parliamentary Committee of 1941, which was investigating Government Social services.

As a result of the Committee's findings and recommendations, it was decided to establish a library and bureau of social work and research within the Commonwealth Department of Social Services.

The decision was not implemented until 1944, when the services of a highly trained and widely experienced social worker from overseas were obtained, and she was charged with the task of planning, organising, and developing a social work and research and library service.

This has been developed along those three lines, and has recently been made a permanent division of the Department. A team of trained social workers provides a skilled casework service in the Department's headquarters in the capital city of each State. They are headed up by the combined social work and research unit in the Central Ad-

ministration, which studies and evaluates benefits by means of research projects, conducts staff supervision and development programmes, and provides an information service on social security services in other countries.

Various other government departments now employ social workers. At Commonwealth level these are: the Repatriation Department, Department of Labour and National Service, and the Department of Immigration, etc. In the more populous capital cities, the State governments employ social workers in such departments as: Education, Mental Hygiene, Maternal and Child Welfare, Health, etc., so that an increasing number of trained social workers are entering the statutory social agencies.

Both voluntary and statutory agencies provide supervised field-work placements for the social work students in the various Universities.

There is thus a nice integration of University training with the professional workers, voluntary, and statutory agencies, which should go far towards ensuring a balanced development over the various fields of social service in Australia.

There was a lively and stimulating discussion after the paper of Miss Cameron.

UN PROGRAMME OF ADVISORY SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES IN THE FAR EAST

DR. J. F. BULSARA

United Nations Representative.

Following this Dr. J. F. Bulsara, Director of the Regional Office, and Far Eastern Representative of the Division of Social Activities of the United Nations at Bangkok, gave a very informative and interesting talk on the advisory social services of the United Nations in the Far East.

He said: "Many of you must be familiar at least with a part of the United Nations Programme of Social Welfare Services, viz. that dealing with Fellowships for observation abroad in the field of Social activities. India has been participating in the Fellowships Programme for the last three

years and she was granted 3, 12, and 19 fellowships respectively in the three years 1947, 1948 and 1949. But the granting of Fellowships forms only one item in the Programme and I shall, therefore, explain the whole programme of Advisory Social Services in a little greater detail.

The Programme is being implemented under a resolution of the General Assembly and the services are being offered both to the 59 Member Nations as well as to some nations and non-self-governing territories who are not members of the United Nations. So far 38 countries and territories have been taking advantage of the Fellowships, and a few more of the services of Experts or Technical Consultants and Seminars, and every year more countries are doing so as they come to realise the benefit of the UN Programme and the importance of a systematic development of social welfare services for their peoples.

The Programme comprises five types of services at present, viz.,

- (a) Fellowships;
- (b) Experts or Technical Consultants;
- (c) Seminars;
- (d) Pilot or Demonstration Project; and
- (e) Prosthetic material inclusive of artificial limbs for the handicapped in war-devastated countries and supply of films and literature on Social Welfare subjects.

Fellowships.—are given for a maximum period of six months for the observation of a selected subject, which has some significance for the recipient country, in countries where the specific activity has been well developed. The candidates are supposed to be well acquainted with the subject in their field of observation both by theoretical training and practical experience and well conversant with the language of the host country, so that they can observe and study the subject or activity

with knowledge and intelligence and get proper benefit out of their observation.

They are supposed to return to their home country after the completion of the observation programme and engage in social welfare work in the same or similar field with a view to promoting the activity to the benefit of their countrymen.

The entire programme of services is worked on the basis of matching or partial financial participation by the UN and the recipient country. In the case of Fellowships, the recipient countries bear the cost of transportation of the Fellows to and from the place of destination and other incidental minor costs. The United Nations take care of the rest of the expenses except of clothing, sickness, etc. The expenses cover a living allowance which is \$170 per month for Scandinavian countries, \$190 for Great Britain and \$300 for the U.S.A. and Canada. They also include cost of internal travel in the country of observation upto a specified amount according to the country, tuition, and a limited amount of about \$40 for books.

The United Nations has made specific arrangements with National Agencies in the various host countries for affording proper and adequate facilities for observation of activities and institutions in the field of social welfare, and the National Agencies and host countries undergo considerable trouble and some cost for rendering such a programme of observation possible for candidates coming from various countries of the world, developed and under-developed. That is their contribution to the UN programme of bringing the peoples of the world together, creating greater understanding between them and affording assistance to improve the standards of the under-developed peoples. The Fellows are selected and distributed on a global basis so that the programme of services may

bring the peoples of the world into closer contact on as wide a scale as possible.

Countries participating in this programme have appreciated its value in so far as it has given an opportunity to many of them to get their nationals gain useful experience abroad, which would not have been possible but for the UN assistance and organization of the project on a world-wide basis. The offer and introduction of the programme of services have further evoked among various countries of the world including the Middle and Far East a keen desire to improve their own welfare services, re-organise them, and put them on a sounder footing.

This improvement and reorganization are particularly noticeable in countries which have been devastated by war and whose peoples have consequently been experiencing great shortages, misery, suffering and destitution on an unprecedented scale. They were almost obliged by dire necessity to open up nation-wide operations for relief and rehabilitation and provide large funds themselves from the national exchequer over and above the magnificent contributions from international agencies like the UNRRA and the UNICEF. The relief and rehabilitation work was put in charge of Ministries and we have thus in several countries of the Far East today Ministers or Commissioners with Cabinet rank for Public Welfare or Social Affairs as in Korea, Japan and the Philippines and Secretaries of the Department of Welfare in Singapore, Hongkong and Malaya.

The Philippines, India and Ceylon were already taking advantage of the Fellowships Scheme since 1947 or 1948 but Korea, Japan, Thailand and Pakistan will be brought into the orbit of this programme for the first time in 1950, and perhaps Indonesia, Burma and Malaya, which I am going to visit in due course, might

also join in the Programme. Thus in all about ten countries and territories in the Far Eastern Region may be taking advantage of this facility for observation abroad in 1950.

It might interest you to know that the 56 countries taking advantage of UN Fellowships in 1949 requested for 294 Fellowships and they were allocated 252, but they actually used only 188. The largest number of Fellowships asked for by and awarded to a single country was 31 and 20 respectively to Poland, out of which she could use only 3, whereas the second largest number asked for by and awarded to was India. India asked for 19, was awarded 19 and used 19 Fellowships in 1949, whereas Italy followed closely with 17 requests, awards and use.

The necessity for the establishment of ministries of welfare caused by the devastation of war in these countries, was evoked by a similar catastrophe in India, viz. the communal disturbances that broke out on a gigantic scale uprooting about six and a quarter million people from their age-long habitat and homes. You are well aware of the magnificent work done by the Government of India which rose to the occasion, establishing a Ministry of Relief and Rehabilitation at the centre with similar departments in the Provinces and spending large sums of money to bring succour and solace to the millions of stricken people, men, women and children. The voluntary and the few salaried social workers in the country have an excellent account of themselves and rendered timely help which was much appreciated by Governments. I recall that this subject was discussed at the first session of the Indian Conference of Social Work held in Bombay, a talk was arranged by one of the principal officers dealing with the relief and rehabilitation of displaced persons, and an

UNRAA film on similar work was also shown.

I shall say something more on the subject of Fellowships later on. Let me now proceed with a brief account of the other services offered by the UN in the above programme.

Experts or Technical Consultants.—The second service is that of providing Experts or Consultants on subjects of social welfare to countries who would like to organise a practical scheme or programme of services in a particular field, which is of imminent importance or in urgent need of development.

The services of an expert is generally provided for 6 months to one year, though in two or three cases they have been continued over a longer period in view of the special or exceptional needs and requests of the countries concerned. At present there is a social welfare consultant in the Phillipines and a Child Welfare Specialist in Japan working in co-operation with a Nutritionist provided by the UNICEF. A request for an expert in child care and training of the handicapped children has been received from a third country, whereas there are possibilities of receiving a request for a specialist in criminology from a fourth.

The Division of Social Activities maintains a Roster of experts in various fields knowing various languages and on the request of governments, they are given a choice from amongst several on the list.

The general administration expenses and the salaries of experts are borne by the United Nations, whereas on the same basis of matching or participation by the recipient country, which I referred to earlier, the recipient country bears the cost of transportation, *per diem* living allowance, and other expenses of office space, secretarial or interpreter assistance, internal travel, etc.

So far 49 experts in various subjects have been provided on request to 16 countries of the world.

Seminars.—The third service is of organising *Seminars* on subjects or problems of specific and pressing significance to a group of countries in a region. The subject or subjects are decided by the UN Head Quarters in mutual consultation with the host and participating countries. Experts are invited and assembled from the countries of the region and from abroad as well as from the United Nations organization or the staff of the Specialized Agencies, and on an average about ten such experts assist at each Seminar. Some country in the group of participating countries acts as a host and invites the UN to hold the Seminar in their country, offering facilities of accommodation to the experts, office and meeting accommodation, secretarial staff needed, facilities for observation of activities or institutions, etc. This is a still more costly service than the first two of Fellowships and Technical Consultants and takes about a year to organise. The Seminars last for 3 to 4 weeks. They have proved of great value as stimulators of thought and discussion followed by some action or concrete results, especially in under-developed parts of the world. So far four Seminars have been successfully organised by the Division of Social Activities—two in Latin America (Columbia and Uruguay), one in Beirut for the Middle East or Arab countries, and one at Paris in which seven European countries participated including the United Kingdom, Scandinavian countries and Switzerland.

I have been specially asked by Headquarters to explore the possibilities of holding a Seminar in India for the three countries of Pakistan, Ceylon and India some time in 1950 or early in 1951, whereas some social welfare agencies at Manila

expressed a desire to have the Seminar in India followed by one in the Philippines for a group of six countries in the region, viz. Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, Indonesia, Malaya and the Philippines, with cultural patterns very similar to those of one another. Subjects for the Seminar can be suggested by Governments after consulting appropriate welfare agencies. Looking to the needs of the region, so far three subjects strike me as worthy of consideration, viz.

- (a) Organization of Rural Welfare.
- (b) Social Consequences of Rapid Urbanization in the Far Eastern Region (including the problem of Housing) and how to meet them.
- (c) Child and Youth Welfare.

It is not intended however, merely to hold discussions on the subjects at the Seminar. While the subject or subjects will be fairly exhaustively treated by experts and discussed penetratingly with the teams of delegate-participants, it is intended that they do not merely end in a report of the discussions. It is intended that each Seminar should result in the drafting of a short-term and a long-range *programme of action*, drawn up for each country by its respective team of participants, discussed thoroughly at the Seminar and finalised before they return to their countries. These can then be submitted to their governments or other organizations for implementation as soon as the financial support is forth-coming. The practical programme of action will naturally take account of the factors obtaining in the country, the availability, sources and cost of personnel, the methods to be employed, the venue of starting the work, etc. In order that this can be done as a part of the work at the Seminar, the participating countries will have to make timely preparations by collecting the required data and appointing their team of participants

very early or well in time so that they may be prepared with the facts and well briefed to draw up the tentative programmes of action.

Pilot or Demonstration Project.—The fourth service comprises a still more costly scheme of what is called a *Pilot or Demonstration Project* involving a more complex and laborious organization and applicable to a whole region or a major part of it. As the name implies, it is a Project, which, with the utilization of widely placed resources especially of experts and teams of delegate-participants from the various countries in the Region, actually demonstrates the methods and procedure of training a type of worker, conducting a type of institution, or carrying out a practical survey or project in the field. To illustrate what I mean, the Far Eastern Region is a preponderantly rural area, agriculture being the main industry and means of livelihood for 75 to 80 per cent of its population. Of the 1600 million rural population of the world out of a total of 2150 million, more than 50 per cent live in the countries and territories of the Far Eastern Region from Pakistan to Japan. It would be pertinent, therefore, to have a Pilot or Demonstration Project for the Region bearing on some aspect of rural welfare, which, I am afraid, has been almost totally neglected in spite of the fact that for every one urban dweller, there are three that live and work in villages. Yet in vast tracts of rural areas, from which all governments derive a handsome portion of their yearly revenues, there are no welfare services worth the name offered or organised by government for the benefit of the neglected villager. He does not have the benefit of a good road or other communications, no sanitation, no lighting, no medical care, no education, no police protection and no amenities—at least nothing much worth speaking about in most of

the countries of the Far Eastern Region. Hardly one-tenth or one-fifteenth of the taxes he pays may be spent on any village service and that largely on the personnel that once or twice in a year go to the village to gather the taxes, with which they often gather much more besides from the poor, uncomplaining, simple villager or agriculturist. His lot is not dissimilar in any of the countries of the Far East, except perhaps Japan, where, thanks to the smallness of the territory and thoughtful organization, the villager gets the benefit of free education, partial medical care and some public assistance.

It is therefore suggested that after the experience of the two or three Seminars in the Region, it may be advisable to organise a Pilot Project in 1952 for the training of Social Workers specifically suited to work in rural areas.

Such a worker may need a specialised type of composite training. For instance, he will have to be broadly well acquainted with the fundamentals of social work and welfare, though not a specialist as most urban workers would be. He must know the elements of public health and sanitation and must be able to impart them in a simple way to the literate or illiterate village folk. He must have some idea of the problems of literacy and education so that he can easily cooperate with the village teacher, if any, and act as one if there is no teacher in the village. He should also have some elementary knowledge of agronomic conditions so that he comes to have an intelligent understanding of the life of the villager and help him more effectively. He will have to be then equipped with a fair knowledge of the working of the Ministries and Departments of Public Health, Education, Agriculture and Public Welfare or Social Affairs, so that he can properly guide the unknowing village people and obtain timely help of government departments.

Perhaps you may think this is too much to expect from one person, but since we cannot afford to send but one social worker to one large village, or one to a group of small villages, he will have to be trained as a composite type of social worker. He will occupy a position of guidance and leadership and I do not think it is very difficult to train such persons.

For the Pilot Project the experts will thus have to be drawn from their respective fields in various countries and from the United Nations. The latter will have to secure the assistance of Specialised Agencies such as the World Health Organization, the International Labour Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization and bodies like the UNICEF and ECAFE.

The Pilot Project may actually be located in a town with a rural neighbourhood so that it may assume a more practical aspect, and the teams of participants from various countries of the Region may work in the midst of rural conditions. These teams of participants will then advise their governments about setting up such Projects for the training of social workers for rural areas in their own countries.

The Projects will have to give practical guidance on such subjects as the availability of workers for training, the sources of their supply, the relative costs of such schemes, the possibility of setting up one or more training centres in each country, etc. The Project may be accompanied by an *Exhibition of rural arts and crafts* and plasticine, clay or cardboard models of villages and village life of the various countries of the region, each country sending such a typical Exhibit for the purpose. The Project can thus serve a double purpose of demonstrating methods of training social workers for rural areas and of educating the populace. The Exhibition can be sent round the countries of the

region if so desired by them. The Project can be of immense practical utility and may focus pointed and expert attention on a subject that is of vital importance to the region as a whole, if it is planned with imagination and carried out with the co-operation of all the countries of the Region and the United Nations, who will be sponsoring it some time in 1952.

The Hon. General Secretary of the Indian Conference of Social Work has thrown out a suggestion that the Project may be held in India in 1952 immediately after the International Conference of Social Work, which has accepted India's invitation to hold its quadrennial session here at the time of the annual session of the Indian Conference of Social Work. Intending countries will have to invite the United Nations to hold the Pilot Project and I am sure each request will be given proper consideration with due attention being paid to the suitability of the venue to the region as a whole.

Prosthetic Material:—The last item of service in the programme of UN Advisory Social Welfare Services is the supply of *prosthetic material* such as artificial limbs etc. to war-devastated countries. Catalogues of *films* bearing on social work and welfare, relief and rehabilitation, education of the people in looking after their own welfare, etc. and produced in various countries of the world as well as by the United Nations, have been prepared and are distributed on request either by the Head Quarters at Lake Success or by various UN Information Centres. You will remember three such films on 'the child', 'the mother' and the 'community' were produced in India by the UN Department of Public Information in cooperation with the Government of India and Voluntary Welfare Agencies and educational institutions and a commentary has been prepared in 7 languages. Together

with another UN film 'The First Steps' with versions in 12 languages, these films have been in great demand and have been sent out to various governments on request.

Lists of literature on social welfare published in various countries are also published and literature is made available to war-devastated countries.

It is contemplated also to establish a *clearing house of information* in the field of social activities and issue a periodic bulletin of information containing literature and magazines published in various countries of the world in the field of social work and welfare. The cooperation of Universities, Schools of Social Work and other public welfare organizations is sought in this connection by the Department of Social Affairs, and they are requested to furnish such information for their countries to the United Nations. Besides the above activities, studies and researches are being made in various fields of social activities by the Department of Social Affairs as on Migration, Housing, Living Standards, Traffic in Women and Children, etc. The work of drawing up Charters as of Human Rights, Childrens Charter, Status of Women, etc. has been accomplished or undertaken.

I have given you some idea of the Programme of Advisory Social Welfare Services and I may mention here that the Programme, which was so far worked and budgetted for from year to year, has been by a recent resolution of the General Assembly put on a continuing basis and Governments are now requested to send in their total request for services over a period of two years so that proper planning could be done.

These services, I need hardly emphasise, have come to stay at least for three to five years and it would be advisable for the under-developed countries of the various regions to take the utmost advantage of

them. Not only do the United Nations and the various Specialised Agencies bear a substantial part of the cost of these services but with their unparalleled world-wide organization and resources at their command, they have planned the implementation thereof in such a manner that great benefit can be derived by nations of the recipient countries. These therefore need to prepare their own well-thought-out programme of taking advantage of these services.

To take only one or two examples—Each Fellowship costs on an average about \$2000 to each recipient country, exclusive of the salary of the Fellow if he is in public service. Thus each Fellowship would cost about Rs. 15,000/- to 20,000/- in six months. This is no small amount and would either be wasted or inadequately used or abused if the candidates were not selected with care, subjects of observation are not carefully chosen with due consideration of the immediate needs of the country, and the services of the Fellows are not utilised for the promotion of the particular field of activity on their return. Actually some or all of these shortcomings have occurred in some of the countries of the region and they have caused concern to the authorities in the United Nations, so that they are more careful about processing the applications received and following up the work of the Fellows on their return to home countries. It need hardly be stressed that imaginatively used, the Fellowships can be of great value to under-developed countries, who can send out teams of qualified personnel to various countries in which the type of activities they wish to develop in their own country have been highly developed. They can thus, at a small cost to themselves, build up in the course of five years a large team of specialised workers in various fields of social work and welfare and put their social services on a systematic foundation. It is

a great opportunity if the value of long-range planning is realised by governments.

You would perhaps want me to say a few words of my experience in the region of my operational jurisdiction. It comprises fourteen countries and territories from Pakistan to Japan with about 53% of the world's population. Economically it is not a highly developed or industrialised region, nor have the various countries very developed social services. The standard of living is low, illiteracy of masses is extensive and the socio-economic handicaps of the populations are many.

It is because of these handicaps that the region requires more social services in order to give a helping hand to the population and ameliorate their living conditions in the fields of health, education, recreation, aesthetic and cultural enjoyment. The various social handicaps of men, women and children can only be removed or alleviated by systematic study and social treatment. In some cases, special techniques are necessary to alleviate the economic lot of the people.

And yet it has to be admitted that in the field of social services, most of the countries of the region are very much under-developed. There is a paucity of social workers and too much is left to be done by voluntary welfare agencies. These do a great deal but in the complexity of modern urban life and unwieldy growth of cities, the effective handling and solution of the various social problems cannot be left to voluntary social work alone; the State has to step in with its nation-wide resources as the largest organised national group to relieve the handicapped population and rehabilitate them, bringing relatively greater security to the people.

With a poor economy, low productivity, large-scale unemployment and a fast growing population, the State is not able to cope

with the various social problems arising apace among children, adults and the aged and the suffering is relatively much greater.

Besides lacking a comprehensive programme of social services, the countries in the Far Eastern Region uniformly suffer from a lack of training institutions, lack of trained personnel, absence of social research and of any worth-while literature on local or indigenous social subjects and problems. This lack of training facilities, research and literature is uniform throughout the region. We therefore witness the striking phenomenon of too much dependence on training in western institutions, on utilising western literature and textbooks and western methods of work. No doubt it is advantageous in some ways to build on the experience of others, but it also indicates a sort of an oriental paralysis which looks for a magic cure from the West. This constant looking towards the West for the adoption of techniques for solving our social problems is not a healthy sign, and it would be advisable for countries in the region to take stock of their needs, found necessary institutions on a regional basis if it is not easy, economical or effective to develop such needed institutions singly in each country and build up their own research bureaus and their own sociological and social welfare literature.

There is another aspect of regional social work that we need to pay more attention to. It is a well known fact that the socio-economic and climatic conditions, culture patterns, designs for living and philosophy of life—are not the same in the Western and Eastern countries. They are however very much alike in the countries of the Far Eastern Region *inter se*. If therefore in utilising the UN Fellowships, the countries of the region can afford to let their candidates observe within the region they may be better able to apply their knowledge of

well run institutions and activities in one country to another not so fortunately situated. This would also be less expensive and more useful in the long run. At present it is not known by many as to what social welfare activities and institutions are more developed in various countries of the region, with the result that everyone thinks of first going to the U.S.A. or the United Kingdom. Further, whereas people of the Far Eastern Region know much more about the conditions and peoples of the U.S.A., U.K., France, the Netherlands and other American and European countries, they seem to know little or nothing about the conditions and peoples of the countries of the region itself, sometimes even about their neighbours.

It appears therefore necessary that information about advanced activities and institutions in the various countries of the region should be collected by some central agency and circulated among the governments so that it may act as a guide to those who would like to observe or study such institutions with a view to developing similar activities or institutions in their own country. I can only cite a few instances which will indicate the importance of collecting and disseminating such information. A candidate in a country of the region applied for a Fellowship of observation of Cottage Industries in Mexico, Guatemala, Sweden or Switzerland. She could not explain why she wanted to go to these countries. When told that the best and most suitable country for such observation is Japan, which is not far from her country, she expressed a doubt if it would be possible for her to observe there. She was told that this could be possible through the United Nations Organisation and she agreed to go there for observation if selected. Another candidate stated that he wanted to study nutrition in a country of

the region if this was possible and had not heard of the pioneer nutritional researches at Coonoor. A third wanted to study aspects of social insurance and social security in a country of the region as such study in the highly advanced economy of Canada or the U. K. would not be of equal benefit. He had not heard of the scheme of social insurance for Miners in India.

The need for collecting and disseminating information on such topics and facilities for training and observation within the region is increasingly great, and countries who can afford to offer such facilities to their regional neighbours would be doing a great service in the direction of developing closer ties of friendship and understanding within the region by such co-operation and mutual helpfulness. Sometimes owing to the smallness of the size or population of a country, sometimes because of the lack of resources or inability to undertake advanced studies or research in fields which require very large funds which one country may be unable to supply, it may become advantageous for a group of three or more countries to come to some mutual understanding and exchange facilities for training of the students from the others. This seems to be more necessary in an under-developed region like ours and a beginning made in the sphere of social welfare or natural sciences may lead to further co-operation in other more fruitful fields. I would therefore urge those countries who have developed such advanced activities or institutions to inform the Regional Office so that the information can be circulated for the benefit of all the countries in the region.

The region being relatively poor and also preponderantly rural, the obtaining of finances for meeting the expenses of varied social services needed on account of war-devastation, refugee rehabilitation, etc. is becoming more and more difficult. More-

over, social services, though they pay themselves several-fold in the long run and have also a great preventive value, do cost money in the initial stages. Social workers have therefore to think more and more of this aspect of the financial problem, which is hampering their effort a great deal. While it is true that the richer the country, the better the social services it is able to provide for its people both on the palliative and preventive sides, it has also to be noted that social services depend for a large measure on human help and effort. The material resources required often form a relatively lesser portion of the total needs of social service. We have therefore to adapt our social welfare or ameliorative techniques to our conditions and resources. It is also necessary, nay imperative for us to think on our own or on original lines and not be clogged all the time by western models which we cannot effectively transplant.

Thus to take a random example only by way of illustration—and not by way of final proposition—we have a vast illiterate and poor rural population. The gulf between living conditions and amenities of civilised life in villages and urban centres is so great that a vast majority of persons brought up in towns and cities are unwilling or unable to live and work in villages. Sometimes extra inducements have been offered without attracting the right type of workers in sufficient numbers and the problems of rural welfare, rural medical aid, rural education have long remained unsolved. The same phenomenon is noticeable with regard to work in slums in urban areas. Now the principal thought in the minds of most of us has been that welfare is something given as a gift by the fortunate or trained, to the handicapped or needy. The idea of charity and assistance imposed from above still clings largely to most of our social work. In view of the adverse conditions and the mag-

nitude of the problem that faces us, should we not think of giving an impetus so as to let the urge for self-improvement emerge from within? And the urge from within has a more permanent value and a relatively longer life in its initial intensive form. Would it not be worthwhile attempting to select a few village boys and girls, men and women with enthusiasm and intelligence and train them as leaders in a special folk or people's school over a period of four to six months and thereafter let them go back with ideas and let them work on a small monthly stipend among their own folk to ameliorate their conditions, village health and sanitation, etc. A few more highly trained itinerant workers from urban areas can supervise their work, stimulate their efforts and keep it up from slackening in view of the rural inertia. The Folk Schools can be multiplied as resources permit and the seeds of self-improvement sown in more villages year by year. It appears to me such an effort to arouse the urge of improvement of the standard of living from within may have greater chances to survive than casual efforts imposed from above or without and with the help of workers who have either no stake or little heart in the service rendered. The same principles of training for leadership may be applied with slightly modified methods and technique to urban areas, particularly the poorer ones or slums. Once the work has started and our economic resources develop, it may be possible to raise this work on a higher plane with the help of specialised workers, but there seems to be no reason why we should wait indefinitely for highly trained personnel and finest techniques in the long transitional period, if it is possible to do ameliorative work with local talent and effort.

As I stated before, this is not the only or sacrosanct method of attacking the problem of rural welfare or slum improvement. But

in view of our conditions of illiteracy, poverty and rural primitiveness, we must break away from the traditional or western techniques and think on original lines; adapting our techniques to our own peculiar conditions. To take one more example, it is well known that adolescent boys and girls have tremendous altruism and vitality for constructive work if their natural energy and enthusiasm can be directed into proper channels. For lack of a constructive or creative outlet, it is at present either wasted or ruining to seed or at times abused. Their junior degree course year can be utilised to great national advantage as much as their long vacations. With suitable intensive training over two or three months during free afternoon periods beginning from the first year of college life, they can be prepared for simple work of clearing, sanitation, nursing, teach simple lessons to the illiterate, operating cine projectors, vaccination, road mending, etc. They can then be taken in batches under experienced supervision in depressed areas in the cities or to villages and specific jobs of work can be completed with their help in short periods, thus giving them invisible but real benefits that accrue out of self-expression, creative work and social service. Such a scheme of Student Social Service-cum-Practical Education for Life can be put into effect not merely during interrupted vacations but even during term time by rotation for batches or groups of boys and girls drawn from various University faculties. It will be a partial preparation for life for them and they will be diverted from anti-social or destructive activities to healthy and constructive effort leading to self-satisfaction.

I hope there will be no misunderstanding caused by my above remarks. It is not suggested that in trying to adopt social techniques suited to our needs, we will not need the traditional type of social work and

training. They can go on simultaneously with the new work suggested above. But we cannot afford to neglect large masses of handicapped people by excusing ourselves that there are no finances available or that essential social services will be planned and rendered when our increased productivity and resources permit us to do so. The urban and rural masses are growing so articulate and so restless and discontented that they may not wait that long. It is therefore that the techniques have to be adopted to our conditions and circumstances as they are at present and as they will be perhaps for a decade to come.

The unprecedented rapid urbanisation in the Far Eastern Region is throwing up difficult problems in the cities of almost all the countries. With acute shortage of housing, there is going along a fast disruption of the family, there is an increase in juvenile delinquency and adult crime, in prostitution and in other vices. Shortages of food and essential services are making people discontented and vociferous in their demands. The young are suffering in a larger measure and there is a crying need for Child and Youth Welfare in all countries. Social services have been growing on account of sheer necessity but training is lacking and training facilities are few.

The art of social engineering is gradually coming into its own. Whereas for improving standards of living, economic development and industrialisation, with increase of production, are fundamentally necessary, it has to be understood that a sprawling society gives rise to inevitable social problems and social ills. If social development is not planned with foresight and proper checks provided to counteract social ills, society pays more dearly in curing them in the long run. It is time we realised we cannot drift as in the past. Science and knowledge have put power into man's hands. Utilised wisely, it can benefit society to remove its age-long drudgery and discomfort. But we must not only have the wisdom to utilise science and knowledge but also the will and vision to plan for social justice, social harmony. That is the great task of the twentieth century which is par excellence the century of social sciences and social workers. Social scientists and engineers must shoulder this responsibility and play their role with greater efficiency than hitherto if they are to justify their existence as such.

The talk was followed by a prolonged discussion of interesting questions relating to the subject with which the proceedings of the fourth day of the third annual session of the conference terminated.

SOCIAL WELFARE IN SWEDEN.

The symposium on "Social Work Abroad" continued its session on 30th December 1949 and two papers were read on social services in Sweden and Switzerland, one in the morning at 10 a.m. and the other at 6-30 p.m.

(A Summary account of the more important Sections of the present Legislation

on Social Insurance, Poor Relief etc., and also certain Planned Reforms.)

Much effort is being expended on developments in the social sphere in Sweden at the present time, and considerable progress is being made. In practically every branch of the social services either fresh legislation has been passed or the regulations in force

are being revised. This work of revision is entrusted to Royal Committees, notably the Social Welfare Committee. The following account will touch upon the national pensions scheme; child allowances, health insurance, accident insurance, unemployment insurance, and finally, poor relief and medical care.

The National Pensions Scheme.—The national pensions scheme was introduced in Sweden in 1913. However, it was soon found that the amounts paid in pensions were too small, and although they were successively increased, it became evident in recent years that the pensions were inadequate. The National Pensions Act of the 29th June 1946, which came into force on the 1st January 1948, is intended to remedy the deficiency. The basic idea underlying the new legislation is that, as a rule, the national pension must suffice to afford a bare livelihood without recourse to poor relief.

In principle, only Swedish citizens registered in Sweden are eligible for a pension. The national pension is either an old-age pension, an invalidity pension, a sickness allowance or a widow's pension.

The old-age pension is payable to a person who has attained the age of 67, while invalidity pension, sickness allowance and widow's pension are payable before the attainment of that age. These benefits differ not only in the qualifications necessary for receiving them but also in the manner of calculating the amount thereof, etc.

Old-age pension is paid at the rate of 800 kronor* for a married pensioner if the spouse also has a national pension or is in receipt of a so-called "wife's allowance" (which will be explained below), and at the rate of 1,000 kr. for any other person entitled to a pension. The amounts mentioned are paid irrespective of the existence of income from other sources.

Invalidity pension is payable to any person, who, before reaching the age of 67 on account of bodily or mental disease, imbecility, disablement or any other infirmity is incapable of earning a living by performing such work as corresponds to his powers and talents, provided that the reduction of the capacity for work may be deemed to be permanent. Invalidity in the legal sense is generally deemed to exist when the capacity for work is permanently reduced by two-thirds, i.e., to one-third or less of the normal.

Invalidity pension consists partly of a basic pension of 200 kr. per annum irrespective of the pensioner's income, and partly of a supplementary pension up to a maximum of 600 kr. per annum to a married pensioner, and up to a maximum of 800 kr. to an unmarried pensioner. The amount of this supplementary pension depends on the existence of income from other sources.

Sickness allowance has been introduced in order to provide relief under the national pensions scheme for those who are not eligible for invalidity pension for the reason that their invalidity may be presumed to be of a transient nature.

Sickness allowance is granted to any person who has suffered uninterruptedly for at least a year from such a degree of incapacity for work as is required for the receipt of invalidity pension if the disability, without being permanent, may be assumed to be likely to last for a considerable time. The allowance is payable for a certain period fixed in advance. As to the size and the method of calculation, the sickness allowance is exactly on a par with invalidity pension.

Widow's pension is payable to a widow who at the time of her husband's death has attained the age of 55 and has been married to him for at least 5 years. The widow's

*One Rupee—Swed. Kr. 1-10.

pension is paid at the rate of max. 600 kr. per annum and its calculation depends entirely on the size of the income from other sources.

Under certain circumstances a widow or widower with children under 10 years of age may receive a *widow's or widower's allowance*, the amount of which corresponds to the widow's pension.

The pension benefits indicated above are in certain cases raised by means of *increments*, which are likewise regarded as national pension payments. Such increments are: *housing increment, special housing increment, wife's allowance and extra allowance for blindness*.

In view of the higher housing and fuel costs, the country is divided up into five housing-cost groups, and the size of the *housing increment* depends on the group in which the pensioner's census district is situated. The housing increments, which depend on the existence of other sources of income and on the civil status of the recipient, vary in size between 100 and 800 kr.

Special Housing Increment is subject to the decision of the local authorities. Its size depends on the principles which the local authorities have laid down for such increments. Generally speaking, the principle applied is that the increment shall suffice for the payment of a reasonable rent insofar as it may be presumed not to be covered by whatever other form of national pension which the pensioner receives. The increment is intended to be paid in districts with exceptionally high housing costs.

Wife's allowance is payable to the wife of a married man who is entitled to a pension, provided the wife has attained the age of 60 and the couple has been married for at least five years. The wife's allowance consists of supplementary pension and housing increment, amounting to the same sum as

the wife would have received in the form of those benefits had she been entitled to an invalidity pension.

Extra allowance for blindness amounts to 700 kr. per annum irrespective of the size of other incomes, and it constitutes an addition to the national pension payable to persons who have become blind before attaining the age of 60.

The amount of income, which does not detract from those national pension benefits which depend on the size of the income, is: for a person living alone, 400 kr., and for a man and wife, altogether 600 kr. Should the income of a person without dependents exceed 400 kr. the benefits dependent upon the income are reduced by one-half of the excess amount. If a husband's and wife's combined income exceeds 600 kr. the said benefits are reduced for each spouse by one-fourth of the excess amount of income.

Matters concerning old age and widow's pension are as a rule dealt with ultimately by the local Pensions Committees. Other matters are examined both by the local committees and by the central authority, the Pensions Board.

As from the beginning of 1948, all pensions are paid out direct from the Pensions Board, *national pension money orders* being the customary mode of payment. It is estimated that about 700,000 such payment orders are sent out every month.

The *pension fees* range between 6 and 100 kr. per annum, and all persons between the ages of 18 and 66 are liable to pay a premium. The fulfilment of this liability has no bearing on the right to a pension. The premiums are levied in conjunction with the collection of the public taxes. Only a very small proportion of the costs of the national pensions scheme (about 11 per cent is covered by the premiums. The bulk of the costs are met by the State.)

In 1948 the pensions have been increased by an extra high cost-of-living bonus amounting to the following sums:

30 kr. to widows entitled to a widow's pension.

30 kr. to wives entitled to a wife's allowance.

40 kr. to each one of a married couple if both man and wife are entitled to a pension (a couple receives together 80 kr.)

50 kr. to other pensioners not mentioned above.

To supplement the national pensions scheme, the Pensions Board is doing a great deal in the field of the prevention of invalidity. These activities comprise (a) medical care in the Board's own hospitals for diseases that tend to cause invalidity, notably arthritis, neurosis and asthma, (b) occupational training etc., and (c) any other activity calculated in the interest of the national pensions scheme to prevent or remove incapacity for work or to promote public health.

It should be mentioned in this connection that the Pensions Board also conducts a *voluntary pension-insurance business*, of which any person desiring to increase his national pension benefits can avail himself to advantage.

Child Allowances.—A new Law relating to child allowances also came into force on the 1st January 1948. Child allowances consist partly of *general child allowances*, which are paid at the rate of 260 kr., to practically every child in the country below the age of 16, and in addition, of *Special child allowances*, which are payable for the subsistence and up-bringing of the children of widows and invalids etc. The maximum amount of the special child allowance is 420 kr. a year payable to orphans and, under certain circumstances, to fatherless or motherless children, while a maximum of 250 kr. is payable to certain

other categories of children specified in detail in the Act, including as a rule fatherless children other than those who may receive the former allowance and the children of persons in receipt of a national pension.

Health Insurance.—The present health insurance is voluntary. The new system of health insurance, which was introduced by an Act dated the 3rd January 1947, and which is supposed to come into force on the 1st July 1951, is nation-wide and obligatory. There is, however, also a voluntary insurance with the framework of the new insurance scheme.

Obligatory insurance comprises (a) medical aid insurance and (b) sickness allowance insurance (cash grant). Medical aid insurance does not cover hospital care and free or cheaper medicine, nor assistance during pregnancy and childbirth. Free hospital care and free or cheaper medicine are to be provided outside the framework of the insurance scheme, while assistance during pregnancy and childbirth is subject to special arrangement. Medical aid insurance is nationwide. Sickness allowance insurance, on the other hand, embraces only those members of a sick benefit insurance society whose annual wage earnings amount to at least 600 kr., as well as married women, even if they are not members of such a society. (As a rule, married women are not members of sick benefit insurance societies but are merely insured in their capacity of members of the family. The same applies to children under 16 years of age, accordingly, these categories do not pay fees to the sick benefit insurance societies).

Medical aid insurance is intended in accordance with certain principles specified in detail in the Act, to cover three-quarters of the expenditure on medical aid, including (a) the doctor's travelling expenses and compensation for the journey to and from the

doctor, (b) the costs of travelling to and from hospital.

Sickness allowance paid to a member of a sick benefit insurance society amounts, as a rule, to kr. 3: 50 per diem, irrespective of his earnings. Sickness allowance is increased by an extra husband-or-wife allowance amounting to kr. 2.-per diem and an extra child allowance, generally at the rate of 50 ore per child per diem. Sickness allowance is not payable for the first three days of an attack of illness and may not be paid for a longer period than 730 days for any one period of ill-health. The amount paid to a married woman who is not a member of a sick benefit insurance society is kr. 1.50.

As already mentioned, the benefits under the obligatory insurance scheme may be increased by *voluntary insurance*, though voluntary insurance can be granted only to members who have not attained the age of 55 and who are in good health.

Voluntary sick benefit insurance provides a cash allowance of 1.50, 3 or 4.50 kr. per diem. However, in this case, a maximum is laid down implying that the benefits from voluntary and obligatory sick benefit insurance, plus such wages or compensation as the member is otherwise entitled to during his sickness, may not amount per diem to a sum exceeding 1/360 part of his annual wage earnings.

Voluntary medical aid insurance covers only certain forms of treatment specified in detail in the Act.

Members of sick benefit insurance societies are liable to pay *fees* for the obligatory insurance, and these fees are in a certain proportion to other resources of the society and to the size of the sickness allowance. The annual fees for obligatory insurance are estimated, for instance, for members insured for a sickness allowance of kr. 3.50, including medical aid, at about 24. kr. The size of the fees for voluntary insurance de-

pend, *inter alia* on the age of the insured and the scale of assistance rendered to him during sickness.

Very substantial *State grant*—about 70% of the total costs—will be payable towards the obligatory insurance scheme. Certain State grants will also be made towards voluntary insurance.

The new insurance scheme will be administered by *general sick benefit insurance societies*, and it is assumed that the existing societies will be converted into general societies for this purpose.

Accident Insurance.—The first legislation on insurance governing cases of accident while at work was passed in 1901 and was subsequently replaced by the Act of the 17th June 1916, now in force and last amended in 1948, relating to obligatory insurance for accidents while at work. As from the year 1930 this insurance scheme was extended to cover also certain occupational diseases.

Insurance against accident while at work or while travelling to or from work is granted to every person who is employed for a wage to work for another person's account without being regarded in relation to him as an independent entrepreneur, and also to any person who performs such work for training purposes without a wage. However certain categories of workers, including the employer's children living at home, are not covered by the obligatory insurance scheme.

The insurance policies are taken out either at a State insurance institution, the Riksforsäkringsanstalten (The National Insurance Institute), or in mutual accident insurance companies formed by the employers for the purpose.

An injured worker receives (a) medical care, medicines, and artificial aids, and (b) if the sickness lasts more than 2 days from the date of the accident and involves a reduction in working capacity by at least

one-fourth *sickness allowance* from the day after the date of the accident. The minimum sickness allowance per calendar day amounts, as a rule, in the event of loss of capacity for work, 4 kr. for a breadwinner, and 3.50 for one who is not a breadwinner. The maximum daily sickness allowance payable when the annual earnings of the injured worker have amounted to at least 6.885 kr., is 15.50 kr. for a breadwinner, and 14 kr. for one who is not a breadwinner. In the event of a reduction in the capacity to work, the sickness allowance is payable at proportionately lower amounts.

If the injury after the termination of the sickness caused thereby has involved a loss of working capacity for a lengthy or a short period or a reduction thereof, by at least 1/10th, the injured worker is entitled to an *annuity* during the period in question at an annual amount fixed in proportion to his annual earnings. Thus, in the case of complete invalidity, the annuity is two-thirds of his wage earnings. If the working capacity is reduced by at least 3/10th, the annuity is payable at higher amounts to persons between the ages of 18 and 67 than to those younger than 18 or older than 67. In the former category the annuity in the case of complete invalidity represents 11/12ths of the annual earnings. If the working capacity is reduced, the annuity is payable at an amount proportionate to the degree of reduction plus a certain increase between the ages of 18 and 67. If the annual earnings exceed 7.200 kr., the excess amount is not taken into account when granting an annuity. In certain cases the annuity may be increased by a so-called "care allowance", amounting to not more than 1.800 kr. a year.

If the accident has involved the death of the worker, a sum of 500 kr. is paid towards the funeral expenses, and *annuities are*

granted to certain surviving dependents. A widow, or in exceptional cases a widower, receives an annuity of one-third of the deceased's annual earnings, and children under 16 receive one-sixth of the deceased's earnings. Under certain circumstances an annuity may also be paid to parents. The maximum annual sum payable in annuities to several surviving dependents amount to five-sixth of the deceased's yearly earnings.

The *insurance premium* that is payable by the employer is fixed in proportion to the risk involved in the work.

An employer is entitled (a) to insure against accident while at work any workers who are not covered by the obligatory accident insurance scheme, and (b) to insure workers also against accident outside their work.

For fishermen, arrangements have been made for voluntary accident insurance with a State grant.

Compensation out of State funds is payable, subject to specific regulations, to persons who are injured while in military service etc.

Unemployment insurance.—Unemployment insurance, which was introduced in Sweden in 1934, is voluntary, and in its structure is very largely reminiscent of the existing voluntary health insurance scheme. Wage earners may found *unemployment benefit insurance societies*, which are under the supervision of a State authority—as from the 1st January 1948 the Labour Market Board. Each society is, as a rule, concerned with a particular branch of industry:

An unemployed member receives a daily relief plus, when relevant, an extra husband-or-wife allowance and child allowance. A special extra housekeepers' allowance may likewise be payable. Further, there may be paid compensation for travelling expenses and removal costs. A pre-condition for the payment of such relief is (a) that the mem-

ber has applied in vain to a public exchange for a job, and (b) that he has paid a certain amount in fees during the period when he was at work.

Unemployment insurance, like health insurance, is subject to regulations governing a certain specified period of the insurer's exemption from liability, which implies that the member may not obtain relief for the first days of unemployment—as a rule, 6 days, which need not be consecutive, but must lie within the space of 3 weeks.

The *relief* is paid almost without exception, in cash and the amount of the daily assistance ranges as a rule between 2 and 7 kr. In addition, *child allowance* is payable at the rate of 1 kr. per diem for each child below the age of 16, and *extra husband-or-wife allowance* and *housekeeper allowance* at the rate of kr. 1.25 per diem. Since 1945 an extra bonus of 75 more per diem has been paid in addition to the daily assistance to meet the higher cost of living. As a rule, however, the total financial assistance from the unemployment insurance society may not exceed four-fifth of the wage earnings of a breadwinner and three-fifth of those of any other member of the family.

The relief period, i.e. the period during which daily assistance may be paid out consecutively, is limited to a maximum of 156 days in the course of 12 successive months.

As mentioned above, a member of an unemployment insurance society has to pay *premiums*. These are only paid when the member has a job, and the amount payable depends *inter alia* on the size of the unemployment risk within the various occupations and on the amount of daily assistance to be received. At the end of 1947 the number of members amounted to about 1 million.

The combined expenditure of the approved unemployment insurance societies in 1947 amounted to about 15,600,000 kr.

The State grant represented 43.5 per cent of the combined expenditure, i.e. about 6,800,000 kr.

In October 1948, a Committee submitted a draft proposal for the introduction of obligatory unemployment insurance intended to cover also persons carrying on independent occupations.

Poor relief.—Poor relief in Sweden has of old been in the hands of the local authorities. Seeing that the municipal districts are numerous and vary considerably in size and population, it is obvious that poor relief differs widely in different parts of the country. Poor relief is based on an individual means test, and the assistance granted is adapted to the circumstances in each specific case. In relation to other forms of assistance mentioned above, owing to its very nature poor relief is of a supplementary character.

Swedish poor relief differentiates between obligatory and voluntary poor relief. The former comprises assistance to minors, the aged and the sick who are incapacitated from supplying their needs through work and who lack funds for their maintenance. Otherwise, if the question of the poor relief arises, intervention will depend on whether the local authorities find it justified. In practice, however, persons in distress generally receive assistance from the poor relief organisation if the need for aid has not been remedied in some other way.

Poor relief is administered in such manner as may be found suitable in each individual case, primarily in the form of financial assistance at home or institutional care. In the latter case, the poor relief authority also has the duty of providing the actual assistance.

In view of the supplementary character of poor relief, its scope depends not only on the existing need for assistance as such but also on the effectivity of the social

insurance scheme and of the other measures taken by the community to prevent or remedy distress. In fact, the scope of poor relief is gradually reduced by an improved system of social insurance. Probably, however, it is not possible to dispense with such a form of relief altogether.

The terms of reference of the Social Welfare Committee are to draw up proposals for fresh legislation in the field of poor relief, which is intended to supersede the Act of 1918 now in force. The Committee has already issued some preliminary pronouncements. For instance, the Committee considers that the local authorities should receive substantial State grants for carrying on these activities. Further, greater importance should be attached to the preventive aspects of the matter.

Medical care.—The present survey would

not be complete without some mention of certain social benefits in the field of medical care. It has been remarked above *en passant* that it is intended to introduce, in conjunction with the implementing of the new health insurance scheme, a system of entirely free medical care, as well as to allow a discount on the purchase of medicines. It should be noted, however, that medical care is already open to all citizens at very moderate fees, which in necessitous cases are paid by the poor relief authorities. Treatment and care at epidemic hospitals are given entirely free of charge. Further, there are local "panel" doctors, urban or district medical officers in the towns, and provincial doctors in the country districts. Thanks to this organisation of doctors throughout the country, medical care at low fees is assured to all those in need of it.

SOCIAL WORK IN SWITZERLAND

In Switzerland Social Work is considered to be the organized help of the strong to the weak, of the community to the individual. It is a fight against poverty and distress, against weakness and guilt. It is based on our humanitarian ideas of the value, dignity and liberty of each single person and on our ideals of justice and fraternity, according to which everybody has the same rights as well as the same duties towards the community. From a political point of view strong individuals make the community stronger and also the state which is not meant to be an end in itself but only a way to realize our human aims.

The social legislation of Switzerland is very old. Steady social progress is as deeply rooted in the tradition of the Swiss State as in its legal principles.

To be able, however, to understand the organization of our public social work, one must first understand the constitutional

structure of Switzerland. The Swiss Confederation is a federal Union of 25 member Cantons. They are, by the wording of the Constitution, sovereign in so far as their sovereign rights suffer no limitation by the Federal Constitution. They have their own constitutions as well as their own legislative and executive bodies. Their democratic character rests on the solid foundation of the 3107 Communes. All public activity has its origin here. Every Swiss has a Home Commune, where he can take part in discussion and in sharing the work of the local self-government. It is from the Commune that the Confederation draws its strength and it is here that we can see the difference between Switzerland and countries which are governed by means of a centralized bureaucracy. In Switzerland the national will grows from below upwards and even state institutions are modelled on those which have stood the test on a smaller scale.

Owing to this highly *decentralized structure* of my country the public and private social services are also widely scattered. It is therefore rather difficult to outline them clearly in this short survey. I shall, however, try to give you a rough sketch of the organization of the social work in Switzerland in the first part of this lecture, describing the "role" played by the Communes, the Cantonal and the Central Government, as well as by the private welfare organizations. In the second part I shall try to give you a picture of a few spheres of social work in Switzerland.

As in the case of Swiss life generally, social work is organized on *independent, democratic and federal* lines. Initiative primarily rests with private philanthropic and charitable institutions and with the Communal authorities. The Federal and the Cantonal Governments confine themselves as a general rule to subsidizing the services provided by private bodies and the Communes, wherever necessary. Social work is therefore organized from the bottom to the top. It is directed by a central body only in case of acute emergency. This decentralization of the social work is completed by the "Swiss National Conference of Social Work" which represents the link between the leading private Associations and the federal offices entrusted with social work.

The principal Associations for private social work are:

The Swiss Philanthropic Society (humanitarian),

The Swiss Caritas Association (Catholic),

The Swiss Association for Home Missionary Activity and Evangelical Charity (Protestant),

The Association of Swiss Jewish Welfare Societies,

The Welfare Associations of the Trade Unions and the Social Democrats, as well as the various central associations

dealing with specific objects as for example the "Pro Juventute" (Child and Youth Welfare), "The Foundation for the Aged," the "Anti-Tuberculosis Union," the "Aid to Mountain-dwellers" and the association "Pro Infirmis" (aid to the disabled).

Most of these Institutions are considered neutral in a religious and political sense. This is very important in a heterogeneous country like Switzerland: help must be given to anybody irrespective of his confession, his political background and his mother tongue. The Committees studying welfare and social work usually consist of *all sections of the population* representing men and women, labour and capital, different creeds, languages and political parties. Help will be given without any conditions *to any person or family* whatever their views are. Those assisted will not be compelled to abandon their own conception of life. They will remain respected and free citizens.

If the individual and collective self help and the help through private institutions is not sufficient, and *only then*, the public social work steps in. However, each single case has to be considered carefully, before public funds can be used. Each Commune does first of all help its own citizens, providing them, *e.g.* with accommodation in hospitals and orphanages. The Communes have also organized feeding and clothing of school-children in need, holiday camps and children homes, guardianship, educational institutes and popular kitchens. Not only the citizens of the Commune concerned can profit of these welfare facilities, but all residents including foreigners. In each single Commune the organizations differ from each other. Many small and poor neighbouring Communes unite and organise their social work in common.

The Cantonal Governments *differ* in their policy towards social work: many give financial support to the Communes and to

private organizations, some of them participate very actively in social welfare, and a few even centralize and control the efforts of the Communes.

The part played by the Confederation (Central Government) is a minor one, compared with foreign states. Bills can only be introduced if the Constitution gives the power and this is the case only in economic and technical matters. In emergencies, however, for example during a war or great crises, the Federal Government will give extraordinary war and crisis subventions, though leaving the ordinary welfare to the Cantons. They are more active in the Health services, especially in the campaign against epidemics and tuberculosis; they even take a lead in protecting the employees as well as those working on their own and make sure that federal laws are carried out properly. Though every Canton is bound under Federal law to provide a sufficient number of public employment offices and also a Cantonal central office, the Central Government have their own inspectors who visit the factories on the spot and report to them direct. The public employment service which is organized mainly by the Communes, must be free of charge and must function impartially. In times of threatening unemployment the Cantons, with the support of the Confederation and the cooperation of the Communes, provide for work and if necessary subsidize special schemes of public interest (new roads, canals, irrigation etc.)

A federal legislation is in preparation covering all aspects of labour protection (agriculture excluded). But since the beginning of this century, already, the Federal Law on Factories provides for the intervention of the State with a view to ensuring security of the employees in labour relations,—not to speak of a large number of Cantonal laws.

The demarcation line between private and public social work is not always striking. Very often the two make common cause

sometimes the public institution appoints a private body for a special end or subsidizes it. Often it cannot be decided at first sight which organization is competent. Roughly, one can say that public help steps in *only* when private help is not sufficient or not available and also in all cases where authority is needed, for instance in the re-education of adults unwilling to work and in the legal protection of children.

Private welfare institutions with similar aims link often together for organizing purposes, founding central bodies which facilitate work and planning of their member-associates. The most important central bodies are the "Swiss Philanthropic Society" and the Foundation "Pro Juventute." The need of a coordination is also felt in Communes, Cantons and in the Confederation; many central boards have been established, sometimes including even private social associations. As examples I would like to mention the Youth Offices of the Cantons of Berne and Geneva or the General Welfare Offices in the Cantons of the Grisons and Obwalden.

All private welfare institutions and organizations as well as all official social work offices are *linked together* in the Swiss Conference of Social Work.

The procurement of the necessary funds for private social organizations in Switzerland is, as in all democratic countries, a major problem, though the Swiss population have always proved to be generous whenever they felt it was for a good reason. This means that the Swiss population want to be *thoroughly enlightened* before contributing to a collection. Very many private institutions are based on donations and legacies, others depend on patrons, contributors or collections or have members paying yearly fees. Particularly popular is the sale of badges whose net proceeds go to one or the other welfare institution. Hardly a week-

end passes by without a new badge being sold and it is almost an affair of honour for the average Swiss citizen to buy them. Many public shows are also given whose net proceeds or at least part of them are going to such organizations. Furthermore when private means are not sufficient, the State (either Commune or Canton) contributes by subsidizing the private organizations.

To avoid abuse of funds collected and contributed privately and to protect them, a body controlling and supervising welfare organizations has been introduced. According to a Federal Law of the year 1941, collections can only be made with the previous assent of a central authority whose task, however, is not to decide whether a collection is useful, desirable or good, but only to ascertain the reliability of the organizers allowed to launch such an appeal to the public.

Thousands of people from all walks of life give unpaid spare time help in private charities as committee members and voluntary workers. As it expanded more and more, social work became also a salaried profession.

Amongst the training arrangements for social workers are three schools of social service and also various residential training centres; the latter are administered by religious bodies. In Zurich and Geneva separate courses are given for social workers, employed in offices, agencies and associations, and for those working in institutions (homes, residential schools, etc.) besides special social welfare courses for trained nurses. Pupils come mainly from the administrative services and the teaching profession or after completing a university course. There are special courses of training for work in residential schools hospitalizing physically handicapped and maladjusted children. There are also advanced courses arranged by social welfare offices and by specialised or professional associations.

It is impossible to review all spheres of social work in Switzerland in a short lecture. A fairly complete, though very short survey is given in the small pamphlet written by Dr. Emma Steiger and published by the Secretariat of the Swiss National Conference of Social Work in Zurich. This leaflet has been distributed to you. I shall, therefore, confine to a few items which might be of particular interest to you.

I shall first mention the *Health Services*, because they are often considered to be especially well organised in my country. Their central authority is the Federal Health Office.

Health belongs however primarily to the competence of the Cantons. Most of them have their own Health or Sanitary legislation.

Eugenics, which try to limit the propagation of hereditary strain, and *mental hygiene*, which seeks to protect mental and spiritual health from the harmful effect of modern civilisation, are promoted by private scientific or social institutions, as well as by public medical and educational services and clinics.

Fortunately the industrialisation of Switzerland took place without the growth of huge towns or the proletarianisation of the masses and nowhere in Switzerland are there gloomy industrial centres which have sprung up elsewhere. Housing policy plays, nevertheless, a most important part in our social work. Houses are built on a non-profit basis and housing assistance is given to large families, as unhealthy and too small apartments are often the sources of physical and moral disintegration. To help in building suitable and healthy accommodation for the poorer classes of the population is, therefore, one of the first and foremost tasks of the social workers. The main bodies responsible for this type of housing construction are co-operative building societies, voluntary organizations and the Communes. The latter

as well as the Cantonal Governments rarely build houses themselves. They rather support the non-profit cooperative and voluntary building schemes, by putting building grounds at their disposal (either free of charge or very cheap) or by giving financial aid or loans at very reasonable rates of interest. Some large Communes, chiefly towns, are also constructing houses or paying rent allowances to families with numerous children. Others assist by providing holidays and convalescence facilities. There are also large numbers of voluntary holiday camps and holiday relief organizations. The "Swiss Travel Fund" affords facilities for holidays and convalescence by self-help methods. Legal provisions for paid holidays exist in comparatively few Cantons and trades, but they are included more and more in collective and standard wage agreements.

Another important sector of the Health Services is the *campaign against diseases*, especially tuberculosis, which was placed on a legal footing by the Federal Tuberculosis Law of 1928 and the supplementary law of 1948. Here also the responsible bodies are the voluntary organisations, headed by the Secretariats, welfare centres and local sections of the Cantonal Anti-tuberculosis Leagues. The latter are linked together in the Swiss Anti-tuberculosis Union. The purpose of this organization is not only to help individuals, but especially to fight tuberculosis as a whole, by enlightening the population about the *nature, prevention and treatment* of the disease and by ascertaining and eliminating contagious seats. X-ray examination has been made compulsory in the army, in the schools and in many private enterprises and plants.

Numerous sanatoria have been established by voluntary organizations or foundations and also by several Cantons, in order to enable the poorer sections of the population to receive curative treatment in climatically

suitable regions.

With subventions of the Federal Government a Tuberculosis-Insurance was set up, which allows patients to remain longer in the sanatoria (up to 720 days in the course of five successive years). Most of them need however, a very long stay there to recover completely and might also need after-treatment in health resorts to avoid possible relapse. All those persons who are not too well off could hardly afford the complete cure, were it not for the different sanatoria sponsored by the Cantons for their own citizens. There are special popular sanatoria for children, youths, students, different sections or creeds of the population subsidized either by Government or by private funds. Some welfare organizations send even patients to the more expensive private sanatoria. Furthermore, there are institutes, called "preventoria" for such persons who owing to their physical constitution or their surroundings, are likely to get contaminated or those who must remain under observation.

The long sickness and continuous stay in hospital means also a great moral burden and nervous strain to the patients which might aggravate their physical condition. The helpful hands of various welfare organizations give the patients possibilities of light work where they can even earn some money. They arrange for lectures, studying possibilities, games and other entertainments for them, send them books and newspapers and pay them regular visits made by specially instructed nurses. The same welfare organizations take care of children and households during the absence of the mother in a sanatorium.

The *Campaign against Alcoholism* is also part of the Swiss Health Services. It consists of preventive measures as well as of the care of actual sufferers of alcoholism. The Federal Government has an alcohol monopoly, according to which no dram distillery,

not even in a private home, is allowed without a previous authorisation of the Federal Alcohol Administration. The utilisation of fruit in other ways (e.g. drying it, making cider, producing syrups) is promoted by the Central Government; subsidies in this respect are paid to the farmers, to render it more profitable and interesting than distillation. The subsidies are paid from taxes levied on spirits and out of which important amounts are further allocated to the Cantons which have to use at least part of it for their campaign against alcoholism.

Various provisions in the Cantonal legislation restrict the number of hotels, restaurants and bars serving alcoholic drinks, as well as the hours during which these drinks can be served. Further restrictions are the prohibition to serve alcoholic drinks to children and to persons already affected by the alcohol and to induce people not to drink. Even more efficient, no doubt, is the education given to the youth at school where there is good opportunity of warning them against the ill-effects of alcohol. There are very many temperance associations in Switzerland. They dedicate themselves to the campaign against alcoholism. A great multiplicity of non-alcoholic restaurants, workers' canteens, welfare homes, soldiers' clubs, communal centres and even dancing flourish in Switzerland and their number is steadily increasing. Originally they were introduced as social institutions, later however, established as well-going private enterprises. Non-alcoholic drinks like ciders, fruit juices and coca-cola become more and more popular in my country.

The main responsibility for the care of potential or actual sufferers of alcoholism devolves on the temperance societies, as well as on the inebriates' homes and curing centres, mainly organized on a private basis. Their work has the legislative backing of

the Family Law, guardianship provisions and, most important of all, of the welfare laws enacted by a considerable number of Cantons. According to the Swiss Penal Law, a culprit can be sentenced to be interned in an inebriates' home or compelled not to enter for a certain period of time any restaurant or bar where alcoholic drinks are served.

The problem of *Adult Education* is a major issue in India; in Switzerland, where there are hardly any illiterate persons, it is looked at from a different angle. Adult education in my country has two aspects: the point of view of the state, which is the possibility of developing *further* the civic sense, the respect and the dignity of the individual person and the community and of improving the comprehension of our free and democratic institutions; *also* the point of view of the individual which is the possibility to enlarge his knowledge on particular subjects in which he is personally interested. Both would however be impossible for the average working man, if public and private means were not available. The most important promoters of adult education are again private institutions, such as reading and lecturing societies and communal centres. The means of educating adults are lectures and courses, study and discussion circles and most important of all those called "*popular universities*" where complete evening courses are given on almost all subjects at very cheap fees; as for books, pamphlets, journals and newspapers there are thousands of libraries, most of them can be used either free of charge or for a token contribution. The "Swiss Popular Library" makes literature accessible even to the *smallest village* by means of *travelling book chests*. To enable everybody to visit the shows in the theatre "popular performances" are arranged where the regular shows can be seen at much reduced rates. There are over 3,000 Societies

in Switzerland which give amateur theatre shows. Thousands of musical, especially choral, societies themselves produce all over Switzerland. Museums and exhibitions can—on certain days—be visited free of charge. Conducted tours, courses and lectures promote the general comprehension of arts. Documentary films also play an important part in adult education. In this connection it is interesting to note that most of the Swiss Cantons prohibit the visit of ordinary picture houses to youths below the age of 16; in certain Cantons this limit is even 18 years.

Many adults prefer, however, to educate themselves in a more practical way. For them the so called "Spare time and Handicraft Centres" were established, where they can get carpentry, mechanical and other skilled training.

Another very important sphere of social work in Switzerland is *child and maternal welfare*. The oldest form of this welfare is the *crèche* which look after the babies and infants whose mothers are at work during day-time or ill in hospitals or sanatoria. It takes care of the children up to the school age, while Kindergartens, as purely educational institutions, are open only during a few hours of the day. Some towns also possess child-caring centres or day nurseries, catering for small children, who need to be looked after during the day. Homes for mothers and infants care mainly for unmarried mothers and their children, and homes for infants and small children for those requiring care on social or personal grounds. Crèches and homes are usually run by private organizations, a few also, for instance in Zurich, by the Government.

The emphasis of assistance has lately been increasingly transferred to positive health measures through the general teaching of mothercraft which is given in schools and child welfare centres. Particularly in rural and mountainous areas, far from important

centres, *visiting nurses* going either by car, motor bicycle, bicycle or on foot visit expectant and nursing mothers, teach them mothercraft, and advise them. The Foundation "Pro Juventute" is the main body responsible for this type of social work.

Partly due to the social welfare the mortality of infants—which was about fifty per cent in the 16th century and still almost five per cent in the second half of the last century—has now been reduced to 1.6 per cent.

Formerly the confinement expenses were met in needy cases by the Poor Relief Authorities or by private welfare bodies; now the confinement expenses of the poorer members of the population are partly covered by the Maternity Insurance within the Health Insurance system. In some industrial Communes they are covered below a certain level of income by the Commune itself.

In the important towns special welfare agencies give advice and, if necessary, help to the expectant mothers.

Home care for nursing mothers as well as for infants is largely given by trained maternity and children's nurses who are paid by social institutions if the mother's means are inadequate; when necessary, mothers are provided with accommodation in hospitals by these institutions. Large numbers of overburdened mothers are also taking holidays or receiving help at home through the assistance of private organizations.

The Swiss Civil Code contains enlightened provisions for the protection of illegitimate, neglected and other children needing care and protection. These provisions are carried out by guardianship authorities who are responsible for appointing a guardian for every child whose parents have died or who have lost their parental rights by decision of the competent authorities.

Communal orphanages and reception centres, together with voluntary children's

homes run by humanitarian bodies provide asylum for orphans and children adversely affected by their previous environment.

In Switzerland the aid to farmers and mountain dwellers is considered to be one of the most important aims of our social workers. The poverty of many a farmer family has the same origin there in Switzerland and here in India: it is due to excessive domestic indebtedness. To remedy this a Federal law is under consideration which would, among other things, place a compulsory limit on debts and would also include debts remission clauses.

An appropriate price policy and, in particular, a system of self-help promoted by numerous mutual associations is improving the economic position of farmers. This self-help consists in teaching them technical and practical methods in cultivating and administering their farms in a better manner and in explaining to them how to avoid agricultural pests. Welfare institutions are also giving them financial assistance and clothes and organise the recruitment of voluntary labour, which consists mostly of students and school-children of both sexes. Several High Schools have decided to make this assistance compulsory for certain classes, both as a help to farmers and as an educational measure for students.

An attempt is made to improve the often unsatisfactory working and living conditions of agricultural workers by model standard working agreements and by financial assistance enabling the farmer to provide homes for his married workers.

On account of the relatively extensive mountainous areas in Switzerland special assistance for mountain dwellers is given. Here again self help is promoted and appropriate welfare provisions are made.

Finally, I would not like to end this talk without mentioning, shortly the help the Swiss people have given during and

after the Second World War to the population of less fortunate countries. Our humanitarian ideals demand the help to be extended to anybody who is in need, whoever and whatever he is. Considerable sections of the community not only gave important contributions, but also offered free accommodation and other forms of help to refugees streaming into Switzerland during and after the last war. Most of the charities came from private organizations and were co-ordinated in the Swiss Central Office for help to Refugees. The Confederation, apart from co-operating in the work of the International Refugee Organization, secured maintenance for those who had to be interned for security reasons or for want of alternate accommodation in homes and camps. They also subsidized their repatriation and emigration.

The Swiss Association for Child Victims of the War and the Child Welfare Section of the Swiss Red Cross, both solely financed by private means, took care of many children in foreign countries and also received them in Switzerland. All sections of the Swiss population helped; about 300,000 foreign children were taken to Switzerland for at least three months each. During that period they were newly clothed and well fed. The "Don Suisse" (Swiss Fund for victims of the war), established by a Federal Decree, has co-ordinated all the hundreds of welfare organizations for foreign relief. Crores of Swiss francs were also spent for relief in the foreign countries direct.

The work of the "Don Suisse" is being carried further by the "Swiss Aid to Europe". According to statistics the average contribution of each single Swiss for foreign relief was, in the years 1945 to 1948, about 50 rupees.

Furthermore the individual help was also extremely important. This help was given mainly in despatching parcels containing

clothes, food and other essential goods to needy friends and acquaintances in foreign countries. In the year 1947 alone *relief parcels* having a total value of over 13 crores of rupees were despatched outside Switzerland.

The Swiss citizens are not boasting of their foreign relief work during and after the war, though they have, without any obligation, done whatever was in their human power to alleviate the immense suffering and miseries which spread over Europe.

NORWEGIAN SOCIAL POLICY

The symposium on "Social Work Abroad" held its last meeting at 9-30 a.m. on 31st December 1949 when a paper on "Norwegian Social Policy" was read.

Norway covers an area which is somewhat larger than Britain, but if we look at the number of people, it is one of the small countries of Europe with only 3.2 million inhabitants. While Britain has a population of 500 persons per square mile, Norway has only 26.

Since 1814, Norway has had a constitution which provides for a division of power between government, parliament and law courts. In 1884, however, it became a part of our constitution that the government has to act in accordance with the majority in parliament. Local self-government has roots far back in our history. A number of important matters are dealt with by the municipal and county councils which also decide over a big part of the tax revenue.

Parliament and local councils are chosen by all citizens above the age of 21 in direct elections.

Norway—the way to the North—this ancient name refers to the easily navigable channels between the mainland and the sheltering barrier of islands outside. These sheltered channels stretch nearly continuously round the coast, and sea traffic along this coast can therefore pass mainly through calm waters. Another important feature of the Norwegian coast-line is the great number of good natural harbours.

In the inland regions of the country we

find extensive areas of high mountains which split up the country into a number of valleys. Land communications between these valleys were until the last century very difficult and only the sea could tie these segregated districts into a coherent economic and political unit. Today, although an ever-increasing net-work of railways and roads are binding the country together, sea communications and all activities connected with the sea are still among the most important aspects of Norwegian life.

For more than 1000 years, the Norwegians have been sailing on the high seas, and today we are number three among the shipping nations of the world. But if we take into account the size of the population, we find that Norway has got the greatest shipping tonnage per inhabitant and the country is, therefore, sometimes called the world's "removal man".

Fisheries and whaling also give valuable contributions to our national economy.

The activities connected with the sea are characteristic of Norwegian industrial life, and they produce a large part of the services and goods which we can sell to other countries. But the activity which employs most people is agriculture with forestry which comprises 30 per cent of the country's working population.

Only 3.5 per cent of Norway is cultivated, 21 per cent is covered with forests, and 75 per cent consists of uninhabitable highlands, plateaus and mountains. It is also useful to realise that one-third of Norway

is located inside the polar circle.

Practically all agricultural land in Norway is owned by persons who do the work on it. Most farms are therefore so small that the farmer and his family can carry out all the necessary work. Only 20 per cent of the farms employ hired labour.

Many farms are too small to provide a family with a satisfactory living, and a great number of farmers therefore take up other types of work at certain seasons. In the coastal districts, we often meet the fisherman-farmer and in the inland districts farming is in many cases, combined with timber work.

If we turn to Norwegian industry, its main basis is the fairly cheap hydro-electric power which has been developed during this century. Only a small part of our resources of such power has been utilised so far. Since the war, the programme for building power stations has been intensified and has already shown considerable results.

Electrical power has created several new industries in Norway. I might mention the nitrate industry and the aluminium industry.

After these outlines of geography, political institutions and industrial life, I shall turn to my actual subject, social policy. Until the beginning of this century, we had two main fields of Social Policy, workers' protection and social insurance. In addition to this, we had public assistance, previously known as poor relief.

Workers' protection, social insurance and public assistance are still fundamental parts of our social policy, but other groups of the population have come into the picture and new social measures have been necessary in order to safeguard the living conditions of the people. I might mention measures favouring the family and our policy for housing; wages, taxation, education and schemes for fighting a possible unemployment. To-day, social aspects have also

penetrated into all fields of our economic policy.

Freedom from want and security from the cradle to the grave are among the aims of all welfare states. In the struggle to achieve these aims, social insurance schemes are among the chief weapons.

Such schemes have in Norway been developed during the last 50 years and to-day they include health insurance, accident insurance, disablement pensions, seamen's pensions, family allowances and old-age pensions.

Under these schemes, insured persons receive a benefit to maintain themselves and their families, when illness, accidents or unemployment prevent them from earning a living.

Doctor and hospital expenses are, in most cases, refunded to a patient but medicines are not usually paid for by the schemes.

Pensions are paid to old people, to invalids and to those who have lost their bread-winner.

Old-age pensions are paid to persons above the age of 70 and depend on a means test. To sailors, however, they are paid at the age of 55 or 60 without a means test.

The health insurance covers three quarters of the population, unemployment insurance includes most employees and the accident insurance safeguards sailors, fishermen and industrial workers.

The expenses for health, accident and unemployment insurance are shared by employer, employee and public funds, while family allowances and old-age pensions are financed exclusively by public funds.

As I have already mentioned, social insurance in Norway has developed gradually during the last half century and it is now felt that the time has come to coordinate the various schemes, and bridge the gaps which still exist between them. A plan for co-ordinating and extending our social secu-

ernity systems has, therefore, been worked out by the government after the war. A new scheme, to be introduced is the supporters' and widows' insurance, giving benefits to solitary mothers and widows. Most of the existing schemes are to be extended.

The plan recommends that benefits to which the whole people are entitled, should be paid for partly through a special universal insurance tax and partly through public funds. Special benefits for employees should be paid for through contributions from employers.

To-day, the annual expenses for social insurance amount to kr. 1.46 per inhabitant, but when the new plan has been put into operation, they will be raised to kr. 2.63. The plan will materialise in several stages but the speed with which it can be applied depends on the economic development of the country.

One of the aims of the plan is to make public assistance superfluous. But to-day, social assistance is still necessary as a supplement to the various insurance arrangements.

Closely related with social insurance are the *public health* arrangements.

Local medical officers work in districts which in most cases are identical with urban or rural districts. These medical officers are also chairmen of the local health committees.

From 1950, the country will also be divided into dental districts with a local dental officer in each.

The district medical officer and the local health committee are to take quick action against epidemics and contagious diseases. Apart from this, they are also responsible for preventive medical activities in their districts. The most important aspect of these activities is the campaign against tuberculosis which is still our most contagious disease of

the dangerous type. We still have 3.2 new cases per year per thousand persons, but mortality from tuberculosis has gone down to 0.6 cases per thousand.

Recent law has made Tuberculin and X-ray testing and BCG Vaccination compulsory for the whole population.

The protection of the family and child is to-day looked upon as one of the most essential tasks which is entrusted to state and municipal agencies.

It has become an established principle in our social policy that all parents should receive economic help from the community in bringing up children. Therefore, family allowances are given to all parents irrespective of income. In addition to this, all the other insurance and pension schemes give the beneficiary an extra allowance for each child.

But families are being aided by the community not only through the social insurance schemes. All tax-payers, who support children have a reduction made in their taxes and rates. If a worker earns kr. 6,000 per year, he will have to pay a tax to the Government of kr. 335 if he is a bachelor, and kr. 185 if he supports a wife and two children. The price subsidies on essential food reduces the cost of living with kr. 900 per year for a family of four persons.

Childhood, and even more so infancy, have also been periods when health is particularly exposed. Great efforts have, therefore, been made to reduce infant mortality and to secure to all children healthy conditions when they grow up. In later years, mortality during the first years of life has fallen to 30 per thousand which is an encouraging improvement compared with the last century. All children may now receive free medical examination and treatment from birth till the school-leaving age. Dur-

ing school attendance, they also receive dental treatment free of charge. Most towns arrange for meals to be given in schools to all pupils free of charge. A special type of school-meal, the so-called Oslo breakfast, in most places.

Schools are, with very few exceptions, run by the government and local authorities. Very few of them are private.

School attendance has been compulsory since 1927. To-day, all children go to schools between the ages of 7 and 14 or 15 and they all attend the same type of elementary school. Elementary education is always free of charge and the maximum number of pupils allowed in each class is 30. Corporal punishment is forbidden in all schools.

One of the main principles which Norwegian education tries to realise is the idea that in teaching and in developing a child's personality, the basis must be its natural need for personal activity.

Within the field of *housing*, several acute problems have arisen since the war. In a fairly cold country like Norway, a good house is even more important than it is in countries on a more Southern latitude.

In our thinly-populated country, most dwellings are detached or semi-detached wooden houses. Only the bigger towns have brick houses.

When the war ended, a whole region in the North of the country had been totally devastated by the Germans and two thirds of the population had been forcibly evacuated. Now 40 per cent of the population in this area live in new permanent buildings.

The housing requirements in other parts of the country have also been so immense that it will take a considerable time to reach a satisfactory housing standard for the whole population.

Some towns in the more Southern part

were also destroyed or damaged by the war, and all civilian-building activities were at a stand-still during the five years of German occupation. Moreover, the marriage frequency of the 1940's has been 30 per cent. higher than that of 1930's owing to the age composition of the people.

How have we been able to meet these requirements for house building? Since 1945, we have built an average of 5 dwellings per 1000 persons per year. This is less than in the 1930's, which were our peak years in housing production. But the 1948 result surpasses the pre-war record year and this gives some hope for the future. So far, housing production has not managed to keep up with the increase in persons of marriageable age.

Serious difficulties have been met with since the war in the field of housing. Builders have experienced shortage of several essential materials and labour has in some cases been a bottle-neck.

The system of financing may be described as private initiative or co-operative activities subsidised and supervised by the state.

For house building, the government gives longterm low interest ($\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 per cent) loans supplemented by subsidies.

A radically new aspect of financing has, since the war, been introduced in housing. The policy is that the size of the loans should be determined in relation to the average income in the districts. The remainder of the costs for acquiring a reasonable housing standard are paid by the state.

A dwelling of 3 rooms and a kitchen is regarded as the normal space to be provided for a family's income, has been fixed as the reasonable rent for such a standard, the so-called socially justifiably rent. The

designs of houses built with public loans and subsidies have to be approved by the local officials of the state housing agency, namely, the so-called district architects. One of their tasks is to ensure that public money lent or given out for house-building, is used in the most efficient way and that it does not result in luxury residences. The district architects also give technical advice for building and in this way they help in overcoming our great shortage of architects.

Since the war, Norway has had *Full Employment* and in some trades even a shortage of labour.

Employers and workers have full freedom to determine conditions of employment through collective agreements.

Only in a few cases when vital interests of the community have been at stake, parliament has passed special legislation to settle the labour disputes by compulsory arbitration. But a labour dispute is regarded as legal only if both parties observe certain rules. One of the rules is that they must always bring the dispute before the public conciliator before starting a strike or a lock-out.

Since 1920, the 8-hour work-day has been the legal maximum for workers in industry. Certain shift workers do fewer hours a day but agricultural workers have 9 hours and domestic servants 10 hours.

Special legislation regulating conditions of work for domestic servants and agricultural workers has recently come into operation.

Each municipality has now a labour protection committee to supplement the activities of the government inspectors of labour.

Since 1948, all Norwegian employees have been entitled to a 3 weeks' holiday with pay. The opponents of the new Holiday Act maintain that it was wrong to increase the holiday period at a time when

we have a shortage of labour. Our parliament believed, however, that in the long run, production loss through an increased holiday period would be compensated through better health, increased working capacity and satisfaction in the work.

A very relevant question to this survey on our social policy is: Can the country afford it?

Expenses for social purposes are to-day 27 per cent higher than they were before the war, and they make up 15.5 per cent of the state budget.

Our state finances are, no-doubt, very strained and many complaints of heavy taxation are heard.

Prospects for the international economic development and the uncertain international situation calls for a certain caution in our programmes for social reforms. We must consider our social policy in relation to our economy as a whole. Some of the policies which have now been outlined have been supported by all Norwegian political parties. With most of the policies, there have been difference of opinion as to the scope, ways and means of the various reforms, but it is generally agreed that the price for the nation's welfare must be paid, although it is high.

Dr. Kumarappa, summing up the series of talks, briefly surveyed the various progressive experiments carried on by more advanced countries in the field of social welfare and advised social workers in the country to emulate the example of their brother-workers in the West. But he warned them to keep the indigenous conditions and resources in mind before undertaking a new social service experiment on the lines of those obtaining in the Western social service agencies and to adapt their knowledge and experience to local conditions and price

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FOREIGN DELEGATES

AND

FRATERNAL OBSERVERS

Bandhyopadhyay, Mr. P. C., Delhi (U. N. E. S.C.O.); Bucher, Dr. G.E., Switzerland; Bulsara, Dr. J. F., Bangkok (United Nations Organization); Cameron, Miss Nell J., Australia; Davies, Mr. T. G., Delhi, (U. N. I. C. E. F.); Hersey, Miss Evelyn, U.S.A.; Jain, Mr. S. K., Delhi (I.L.O.); Kumarappa, Dr. J. M., Bombay (International Conference of Social Work); Kutlu, Mr. Orhan, Turkey; Leitgeber, Mr. B., Delhi (United Nations Organization); Phillips, Dr. L. R., United Kingdom; Schive, Mr. Jen, Norway; The Representative, Afghanistan; The Representative, Australia; The Representative, China; The Representative, Czechoslovakia; The Representative, Sweden; The Representative, U.S.S.R.; The Representative, Burma; Williams, Dr. Cecily, Delhi (W.H.O.); Yepheth, Mr. Chaim, Israel.

LIST OF SPECIAL DELEGATES

Ahmed, Mr. Faiyazud-din, Mannanur; Ahmed, Mr. Nizamuddin, Hyderabad; Bannerji, Mr. B. N., Delhi; Bannerji, Dr. Miss G. R., Bombay; Barnabas, Mr. J. Bombay; Bhoota, Dr. Mrs. Kamala, Bombay; Bose, Hon'ble Shri R. K., Cuttack; Bryce, Dr. Mrs. Winifred, Indore; Clubwala, Mrs. M., Madras; Dastur, Miss Shirin F., Bombay; Desai, Mr. Dinker, Bombay; Desai, Mr. S. F., Bombay; Dhavan, Mr. S. S., Delhi; Gore, Mr. M. S., Delhi; Guha, Dr. B. S., Calcutta; Halder, Dr. R. M., Delhi; Iyengar, Mr. A. S., Bombay; Kaikobad, Mr. N. F., Bombay; Kudchedkar, Mr. L. S., Bombay; Kulkarni, Mr. V. M., Bombay; Lee, Mr. Jack, Calcutta; Lindeman, Dr. Edward C., Delhi; Long, Rev. Loy, Bombay; Kunzru, Pt. H. N., Delhi; Mehta, Dr. B. H., Bombay; Mehta, Hon'ble Shri V. L., Bombay; Moses, Miss Dorothy Delhi; Mukherji, Dr. R. K., Lucknow; Natarajan, Dr. B., Madras; Nigam, Mr. K. S., Delhi; Ram, Mr. E. J. S., Bombay; Ranade, Mr. S. N., Banaras; Rau, Lady Dhanvanti Rama, Bombay; Ray, Mrs. Renuka, Calcutta; Renu, Mrs. Ludiva, Bombay; Sanyal, Dr. D. K., Calcutta; Saxena, Mr. P. N., Lucknow; Sharma, Mr. N. P. Jamshedpur; Shyam Mohan, Mr. M., Singareni; Singh, Sardar Tarlok, Jullundur; Thakurdas, Prof. F., Delhi; Venkataraman, Mr. S. R., Madras.

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Names of Institutions and Delegates

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BHOPAL STATE

Association for Educational, Social and Rural Development, Bhopal.

Rural Reconstruction Department, Government of Bhopal, Bhopal. Mr. Shyam Bharosey, Mr. M. Ismail.

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KERALA UNION

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MADHYA BHARAT UNION

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rao; Madhya Bharat Government Department of Industry & Commerce, Gwalior; Madhya Bharat Government Development Department, Gwalior, Mr. Om Prakash.

MADRAS BRANCH

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ORGANISATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORK

GAURI R. BANERJEE

No individual can attain "fulness of life" unaided. This is more so in the field of health. The cause of the sick makes a greater appeal to the public. With the advancement of medical knowledge, skills other than medical have become necessary to make medical care adequate. The social and emotional components involved in an illness situation are to be attended to. The Social Service department of a hospital which in brief is case work can fill up this gap.

The writer in this article points out the need for setting up hospital social services and also deals with the organisation of a Social Service department and its central functions.

Dr. Banerjee is a member of the Faculty of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

Social work rests on the belief that the 'fulness of life' is the birthright of every man, and that if it can not be attained by the individual himself unaided, it is the duty of others to help him to attain it. There is no field of welfare to which this belief has made a greater contribution than to that which concerns health. As health is one of the essentials of life without which nothing can be achieved and as a sick person is quite helpless, the cause of the sick naturally makes a great appeal to the public. Founded on the principle of service to the sick, poor hospitals have grown to their modern state. Clinics and dispensaries have developed to give outdoor medical help to patients.

Treatment methods:—With the advancement of medical knowledge increasing and varied professional skills other than medical have become necessary to make medical care adequate. It is evident that although scientific discoveries may continually advance medical treatment the most expert care becomes of no avail if social and emotional components involved in an illness situation are not attended to. Physicians and Surgeons are often baffled by the reactions of patients to treatment recommended as when, for instance, a mother refuses to accept surgical operation for her child even when it is the best and the only method of cure, or the T. B. patient refuses to undergo sanatorium treatment, or the V. D. patient is irregular in attendance at the clinic in spite

of the warning given to him of the serious consequence of the disease.

In the case of such patients it is necessary to consider the underlying causes of their peculiar reaction. The causes are so numerous that listing all of them is not possible. We may be able to discuss a few of them. Let us take the case of T. B. patients who resist being taken care of in a sanatorium. Such persons have very often an intense fear of the possibility of additional infection from other patients. Some patients have the feeling that loss of activity will turn them into invalids. For some to be in a hospital or sanatorium and thus to be away from family and society not only means being shut away from their near and dear ones but also bearing a social stigma the rest of their life. Sometimes patients regard their illness as the punishment for their past sins. They often think that they may not ever be able to return to their family and community.

These factors may seem ridiculous to us but for the patients who are facing them they are very real. These patients are not aware of the factors that create these fears in them. Unless these fears and conflicts are handled scientifically the patients will remain emotionally upset and not accept the treatment. Thus there is need for a service in the hospital that can deal with the emotional components of illness.

Emotional factors in illness:—In this connection it might be mentioned that with

the developing of psychosomatic medicine dealing with the interrelation of psychological and physiological aspects of disease, an impressive body of scientific evidence is being produced regarding the significance of emotional factors in illness. It is found that many patients suffer from physical symptoms which do not necessarily have an organic basis or have both organic and emotional bases. There was a time when doctors felt in such cases that there was nothing wrong after the organic basis had been handled. With gradual advancement of the psychosomatic approach in medicine some doctors are beginning to realise that the symptoms of emotional illness are not imaginary but painfully real. A knowledge of the physical and social environment of people has been found to be of importance in interpreting some predisposing and causative factors in illness. If there are social workers attached to hospitals they can secure data through scientific interviews which will throw light on the emotional factors. Thus doctors will be helped in planning treatment for such cases.

Besides emotional factors there are various social factors that need to be tackled for giving proper care to the sick. In connection with disease it is clear that such factors as lack of materials or excessive strain in getting them may influence disease. They may reduce resistance to disease as well as power to recover from disease. An ill nourished organism is more susceptible to infection. A diabetic patient who can not secure proper diet can not maintain chemical balance—a cardiac who undergoes excessive strain increases the damage which the disease has caused in his heart structure. Have not doctors often admitted in a hospital a cardiac who has to go back to his strenuous job when discharged from hospital? How often a roadside case comes to the hospital in an acute stage of illness,

goes back to the same environment after discharge, and returns again after sometime with some acute symptoms?

Need for Social Service department:— "What can the social service department of a hospital do about these cases", is a question that is very often asked by people. The need of such a service is recognised at times only for charitable reasons. Hospital social service keeps in close touch with community resources. In case of financial help for patients, it tries to get the same from various trusts and charities in the community of which neither doctor nor patients are aware. Besides securing financial aid for patients when that is the most essential factor, social service department of a hospital comes to the help of patients even when their needs are other than financial. There are people who need this service not because they are poor, but because of lack of adequate facilities at home for convalescent care. If lasting advantage is to be gained from the treatment given in a hospital we must have a proper plan for the care of patients after discharge. They have to be fitted into a place best suited for their care. If they do not have anybody who can plan about their convalescent care, it is the hospital social worker who comes to their help. Some patients may need readjustment to their work, to their home, or to some new kind of work. A trained social worker can help them in securing jobs better suited to their present physical condition, help them in getting reconciled to this change and work towards their rehabilitation.

*Case Work:—*The various types of assistance described above show clearly the central function of the hospital social service department which is in brief case work. I would neither get into the technicalities of case work here nor give the technical definition of it. My simple

definition of case work is that it is a way of assisting people when they are experiencing some breakdown and can not get along unaided. The manner in which the help is given is unique—it is given by individualising him, i.e. taking into full consideration his thoughts and feelings. A hospital social worker focusses attention not on the disease only but on the person as a whole, that is on his physical, social and emotional needs. The understanding of particular needs of particular patients requires scientific training in case work in a professional school of social work and genuine love for people. "There was a period when there was a tendency to divide problems and treatment into those types concerned primarily with either environmental adjustments or emotional needs. It was an implicit assumption that the treatment of the second type of problem demanded greater skill from the worker and thus gave her a higher professional status. It came to be recognised before long, however, that this distinction had been artificial, in that any good piece of case work requires an understanding of client's feelings. Whether the problem seems to center in the environmental or emotional area, the need can not be understood or the appropriate method of treatment selected unless the significance of client's attitude is recognised and the worker-client relationship is consciously used as a part of this process. Environmental adjustments often are the best way of effecting attitude changes, while on the other hand many clients can not do anything about their environment unless they have been helped to some change of feeling about it. Thus these approaches are seen to be a part of every case, intermingling in various ways according to the particular configuration of needs and resources."¹

Organisation of Hospital Social Service.—For organising a department of hospital social service, the matter of first importance is the selection of personnel. Sometimes hospital administrators try to hire an untrained person for this work and feel that in course of time he or she will learn the job. Those administrators do not actually know what is professional hospital social work. They do not realise what actually takes place in 'case work' with patients. They notice some tangible things like putting a patient in an institution or raising some funds for him or at the most feel that social workers have a 'nice way of talking to people'—thus any kind hearted person without any special training can hold the post of a hospital social worker. This argument is as valid as saying that in a village if a person has carbuncle the barber opens it with a knife, puts some medicine, bandages the wound and that a surgeon does the same thing. Is it not true that a surgeon uses the knife, opens a part of the inflamed area, puts some medicine over the wound and then dresses it? Is it not true that the barber charges much less than the surgeon? Why then waste money on a surgeon? The barber and the surgeon both are perhaps kind hearted human beings—it is only the training and the skill that makes all the difference between the performance of both. As with the advancement of the science of medicine (which has a body of knowledge that has to be acquired by training) nobody thinks of appointing barbers in hospitals for surgical service; in the very same way when the science of social work has developed and has a specific body of knowledge only ignorant people will fill up posts in hospital social service with untrained persons.

Training for Social Work:—If persons

¹ Harriett M. Bartlett. *Some Aspects of Social Casework in a Medical Setting.* Chicago: American Association of Medical Social Workers, 1940. P. 8.

are appointed as hospital social workers without specific training for this work, the primary function gets submerged by various odd jobs that untrained workers do. They themselves are not aware of their main function. They perform services which could be performed as well, if not better, by clerks, ward boys or peons. Such a hospital does not derive the real value of a social service department even though it may have one in name. Hospital social work is essentially a case work service with a foundation common to all fields of social case work. It has, however, an additional requirement, namely the application of the case work principles to the clinic or hospital setting which requires an understanding of the sick person, the hospital organisation and a certain amount of medical information. A hospital social worker, therefore, must be a person who by professional education in a school of social work has acquired the said knowledge and technique.

Setting up of department:—Having kept the aims and objects of hospital social service clear in our mind, we shall now see how this department may be set up in a hospital. As a professional unit of the hospital organisation, the social service department has to be organised on the same basis as other departments of the hospital. The position of the head of this department should be like that of other departmental heads. The head of the social service department should be responsible to the central authority of the hospital for administering the hospital policies within the social service department, for the preparation and administration of the budget, for fostering inter-departmental relationships

and for participating in the meetings with other departmental heads where policies affecting the hospital and its patient group are considered. Some superintendents feel that hospital social service department should be a branch of the community welfare service rather than a part of the hospital. They think it is logical, therefore, to have it maintained and administered by the official welfare agency. But they forget the fact that if the social service department is to do effective work, it should be an integral part of the hospital like other departments. It is essential to maintain a centralised control irrespective of the sources of support. Outside sources of support are not to be rejected, but rather stimulated, and the expenditure controlled through the general administration of the institution.

In this connection it may be pointed out that a social service department in a hospital should not become a 'one person show'. It is unfair to have a department with just one person. The tendency to have untrained volunteers or paid workers in the department may also develop. Though volunteers service is valuable, a volunteer worker can not do the work of a social service department on the case work basis unless she has had professional training for it. It will, no doubt, be helpful for the hospital to build up a volunteer service for getting various types of help like getting blood donors, collecting gifts for children, building up a library for patients, taking patients home, and collecting funds for the hospital etc. But this type of service should not be mixed up with hospital social work or what is more commonly known as 'medical social work'.¹ Volunteer service should be separate

¹ I have avoided the use of the term 'medical social work', for it seems to cause confusion. This term is widely used in America and often creates misunderstanding even in the medical profession, not to say anything of the lay public. Very often the 'medical social worker' is asked if she is a doctor and what type of medicine she practises. The medical social worker does not undergo a medical training like a doctor. She deals with social and emotional components of sickness. She practises social work, specially social case work in a medical setting but the case work does not become 'medical'. I prefer to call it either 'social work in medical setting' or for brevity 'hospital social work'.

service. Social service and volunteer service can of course work closely together. In the social service department of a medium size hospital (with about 250 beds and about 3000 out-door visits per month) if there are just one or two social workers, the service will be inadequate because the needs of a large number of patients can not be adequately met by them.

Ideally in a general hospital every medical department (e.g. surgery, obstetrics, V. D. T. B.) should have at least one worker attached to it. But due to the dearth of trained social workers and the limited hospital funds it is not always possible to have one worker attached to each of the departments. So in some hospitals in America and England two or more departments make use of one social worker. In some hospitals a social service department with its limited number of workers covers only a few of the medical services. These hospitals believe that it is much better to cover a few adequately than spread the work over all the departments and do it inefficiently. Some hospital superintendents wonder if it is worthwhile for a hospital to spend much money on social service departments, i.e. engage more than one hospital social worker when there are many other needs to be met in the hospital. While from the point of view of immediate needs it may seem an unjustifiable expenditure, in the long run we will find it a paying proposition. A patient, who is discharged without adequate planning and is admitted every time he comes with acute symptoms, is a source of tremendous expense for the hospital. Besides, it is a tremendous human waste, too. A patient who is medically discharged from a hospital, but lies in the ward because there are no adequate plans made for him and has no place to go, adds to the hospital's expense. A patient who due to inner conflicts refuses

medical treatment at the early stage of his disease when that is suggested by the doctor and comes back acutely sick, adds to the hospital's expenses. As stated before, the trained social worker can help the hospital in these problems and in the long run save its funds and be of better service to the sick and thereby to the community.

Need for Funds:—At present, in most of the hospitals in India funds are far more limited than in those of the U. S. or U. K. Moreover, in our country only recently the training of social workers for hospitals social service has been started. So from practical point of view it will be better to start with one worker in a hospital and to go on adding more and more gradually. At the same time it is very important to see to it that this worker is not used for any odd job which can well be done by less paid workers. It is in the long run cheaper to have two clerks to do these jobs than have highly paid hospital social workers do them. Before a hospital thinks of engaging a trained social worker, it should be clear as to what it is planning for her to do. If it wants a social worker for collecting blood for the hospital, my suggestion would be that it should ask for volunteer service or employ a person with an aptitude for canvassing. It would be expensive for the hospital as well as our country to use trained social workers for such purpose. Many hospital authorities think that social workers should take up the task of directing patients from one department to another or to other hospitals when that is indicated. I quite agree that most patients in our hospitals are illiterate and do need that help. But would it not be less expensive for a hospital to appoint an untrained person for that type of work on part time basis?

Returning to the question of starting a social service department with a limited

number of workers, it will be worthwhile perhaps to see at this point what medical services should receive priority. Priority should be given to those services which produce excessive fear in patients. In the case of surgery we find that for some persons the loss of a part of the body is a serious threat to emotional security. Some others fear that it may greatly interfere with their own adequacy and role as a man or woman. As a matter of fact, surgery creates castration fear, inferiority feeling based upon physical defect, guilt sense or fear of anaesthesia associated with that of death and feeling of disability. Another important medical service is treatment of tuberculosis. It involves many psychosocial problems which are not peculiar to tuberculosis, but they are found accentuated in persons afflicted with this disease because of the long period of hospitalisation. Cancer service meets with more or less similar problems as are associated with surgical treatment. Orthopaedic service comes across patients with somewhat the same problems as in those who have to undergo operation—there may be fear of disability, of wearing new appliances and of deformity. Medical service for diseases comes across patients with various social and psychological problems. Obstetrics department often meets with the problems of unmarried motherhood, unprepared motherhood and of domestic relationship. In a general hospital one section is usually kept for children. It would be better if at least one social worker is kept for children's section—outdoor and indoor. It is hard to say what services should be left out. If priority must be considered

for want of funds, then tuberculosis and surgical services should be covered in every hospital and also cases in medical service that end in permanent invalidism like paralysis.¹

Question may arise at this point as to whether the cases in the ward or outdoor may be selected by the social worker or referred to her by the doctor. Ideally the majority of cases should come through the doctor. But at present all doctors are not aware of what cases to refer to the social service department. In other words many of them do not know how to make the best use of this service. With a limited number of social workers in hospitals a *via media* has to be struck. It will be better if the social worker interviewed all cases of T. B., major cases of surgery, and cases of invalidism. From other services the social worker may take up such cases as are referred by doctors or nurses. In those cases selected by herself in the course of her interview she should consult the physician as early as possible when the time is appropriate. The work on individual cases should always be in association with the responsible physician just as the general policies of the social service department should be known to and accepted by the medical staff.

Provide facilities:—We shall now turn our attention to the facilities which must be provided to the social service department. The social worker can not interview her patient in a crowded place. A sense of privacy is essential if the patient is to bring out into the open those considerations

1. Frequently one is asked per how many patients in the hospital there should be a social worker. It is a question that can not be answered by setting a fixed number. There are diseases which invariably produce a lot of psychosocial implications as compared to other diseases. For example, in the case of *t.b.*, cancer, or major surgery, every patient needs to be interviewed constantly. Minor ailments demand on the whole less work. Roughly it may be stated that in a general hospital one worker per 75 patients at the most should be used. If there are five or six workers in a hospital they can divide their work in such a way as to give the worker carrying e.g. *t.b.* service a smaller number of patients as she will have to work with each of them.

which seem to him to be of particular importance. Hence interviewing booths, both in the outdoor and indoor departments, if they are situated in different buildings, should be provided. If they are in the same building then each worker should have one booth where she can interview both indoor and outdoor cases.¹ The social service department must be so located as to have an easy access to telephone connections and clerical staff. The department however small it might be must have a peon of its own. Besides, the hospital should allocate some fund to the social service department for supplementary services. Sometimes hospital authorities when they budget the expenditure for various departments in the hospital, overlook the fact that social service department has certain expenses of its own. They budget the social workers salary and only a little expense on stationery. But it seems as absurd as employing a radiologist in a charity hospital, buying an X-ray machine and then asking him to manage the department and give service to the hospital or rather patients efficiently. The department can not function unless the hospital bears to some extent the cost of X-ray plates. Similarly unless the hospital puts a small fund at the disposal of the social service department for giving particular types of help to clients the social worker can not function efficiently.

Very often an argument is raised against the proposition of having a small fund at the disposal of the social service department for giving material aid to its clients. Hospital authorities believe that there is a hospital poor fund and the social service department can draw on it. It is a fact that our poor funds are always poor and they seem to appear rich so long as individual needs of patients are not closely detected. Once a social service department is established

and social workers try to see the individual needs of patients there will be too many demands for artificial limbs, costly medicines, conveyance charges for patients to enable them to attend the outdoor regularly, money for giving nutrition, trainfare for sending some patients home and so on. If the hospital allocates a certain amount of money to the social service department the latter can arrange to get some contributions from outside to feed the fund continuously so that it can draw upon the fund generously for rendering help to patients according to their needs. While the hospital poor fund is meant for giving medical relief to the poor the social service department has to meet the social needs of people of which medical need might be a part sometimes. For instance, a person belonging to Calcutta meets with an accident in Bombay and becomes a permanent invalid. If he has nobody in Bombay but has near relatives in Calcutta who can take care of him, it will be a better plan to send him to Calcutta when he is keen on going there and also his relatives want him back rather than transferring him to an infirmary in Bombay. When the patient's family is too poor to afford the trainfare of the patient as well as of his escort there is need for the social service department to help the patient to go to his relatives. The hospital poor fund does not give money for such purposes. People might say that the social worker may raise the money from outside. She might be able to do so. Some days will elapse before she can collect this amount. Keeping the patient in the hospital for that period will actually mean expense to the hospital. If every time a patient needs material aid and the worker has to run around collecting funds much of her time and energy will be wasted and she will not be able to give adequate service to other

¹ Some indoor patients have to be seen in the ward due to their medical condition.

patients. She would just become a fund collector. If there is a regular fund kept separately for the social service department and the hospital contributes towards it a reasonable amount e.g. Rs. 400 to 500 per month the social worker can build up a volunteer service that can contribute towards it as much as possible. If the hospital contributes something towards this fund others might feel interested in giving their mite.

In this connection it might be mentioned that hospital authorities sometimes can not understand why the social service department consumes more paper than any other department in the hospital. A trained social worker's records are not sketchy. They deal with the social situation, evaluation of social diagnosis and treatment and, therefore, these records are bound to be more bulky than those of a medical practitioner. By writing a fuller report a social worker can diagnose the social problem better and also can check up her social treatment plan i.e. whether she is going in the right direction or not.

In social service department every case must have a file. As the records deal with the most intimate problems of one's own life they need to be kept confidential. If each case record is kept in a file they remain in a better condition than they would be otherwise. As there are various letters and important papers of all sizes pertaining to each case practically, it is desirable that they are kept together. They will be safe if each case record along with various correspondence is kept in a file. Also there is need for having steel cabinets or cupboards in the department for keeping the records of closed cases under lock and key. If they are not kept that way any body might have an access to them and read the confidential reports of clients. As these records are

interesting to read clerks and volunteer workers will make use of them as lunch hour story books. It is against the principle of social case work to tell patients that their records are kept confidential when they show anxiety about the matter and later on allow them to be read by any one who feels like doing so.

Other facilities:—So far we have dealt with the organisation of the social service department and its central function which is case work. In addition, the department can take up:

(a) the socialisation of the hospital set up. It may exercise its influence in gradually socialising the processes of admitting, discharge and follow-up and

(b) it can participate in the educational programme for professional personnel.

Apart from the social workers, other professional personnel in the hospital need to have social orientation. Doctors and nurses generally concentrate on the physical and scientific aspects of the disease. They are not in a position to see the patient in his social setting, the interaction of the patient's social situation and his illness or disability, or his attitude toward the situation created by his illness. If the head of the social service department organises frequent conferences with doctors and discusses the social components in diseases with illustrations from the cases treated, they will be able gradually to realise the importance of such problems in illness. The more they come to realise them the easier will be the task of social workers in the hospital as the doctors will then be able to make suitable referrals to this department. Further, the head of the social service department can give social orientation lectures also to admitting officers and nurses.

Moreover, the social service department can be of great value (c) in social research.

Properly kept records of case treated by the department will provide ample material for this purpose. They may, for example, lead to a study as to whether the resources of the community are adequate. Then again the department can (d) participate in the development of health programmes in the community. The development of such health programmes as the control of venereal diseases, of tuberculosis, or those for the formulation of plans for child placement, adequate relief, convalescence and the care of the aged may be regarded as one of the secondary programmes of the social service department. By developing such programmes the social service department will be able to enrich and facilitate its own work. It will be able to concentrate more and more on

case work function only when there is in the community a well developed programme for the care of its disadvantaged members.

In this connection, however, it should be borne in mind that social case work with patients is the primary goal of the social service department and should be placed clearly in the centre, coming first both in development and importance while other services revolve around it. If this is kept clearly in mind, it will be easy for it to achieve the secondary objectives. But if it holds on the secondary objectives first, like routine follow up of cases because they seem tangible, it will be lost in the mesh and will never be able to achieve its primary aim.

¹ Often, doctors and nurses think that a social worker should follow up every case discharged from hospital. There will be many cases of follow up where no case work skill will be needed. If the doctors and nurses are sympathetic most of the patients respond voluntarily as a result of the favourable contact made in the clinic or hospital. There may be some cases out of these patients where even when they may like to return to the outdoor department regularly, they cannot do so on account of household situation. For example, a woman who has young children at home, finds it difficult to visit the clinic regularly if there is nobody to look after her children during the time she is away from home. If a clerk is engaged to send out letters and if these letters have warmth and show interest in the patient, it is possible that the patient will let the clinic know about her difficulties and be willing to cooperate in the plan that the clinic will make for overcoming her handicaps. When the clinic clerk receives the reply, he can know what obstacles are in the way of the mother and refer the matter to social service department. Thus a great amount of time of the social service department will be saved.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES

- J. A. PANAKAL

Employment Exchanges are necessary to tackle effectively the problem of unemployment and to secure for the employed jobs suited to their taste and training. They also help the employer to secure a man suited to do his work. This service has been working efficiently in many foreign countries, though the pace has been rather slow in India.

In this article, based on a specialised study, the writer describes in detail the origin, growth and development of these Exchanges both at home and abroad. He also gives a plan for a system of Employment Exchanges.

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An employment exchange is defined by the British Labour Exchanges Act of 1909 as "any office or place used for the purposes of collecting or furnishing information either by the keeping of Registers or otherwise, respecting employers who desire to engage workpeople and workpeople who seek engagement or employment." It is the duty of the exchange to bring together as expeditiously and as economically as possible the employers and employment seekers and to place "the right man for the right job". In this way, the exchange helps the worker to avoid financial wastage in random job hunting. Moreover, a careful placement enables the worker to stick to one particular job. This brings down the rate of labour turnover, thereby promoting steadier output and better quality of production. On the other hand, the exchange saves the employer from the trouble of advertising the vacant jobs and of wasting his time in interviewing a large number of applicants from whom he has to select only the most suitable persons.

Historical Background.—The growth and development of employment exchanges has been particularly phenomenal during the last few decades. It is worth-while in this connection to trace the origin, growth and development of these exchanges both at home and abroad.

The earliest fore-runners of employment exchanges in Europe were the craft guilds of

the middle ages. The placement work they did was not uniform in method and was usually carried on by the masters of the craft. A large number of workers in certain trades had, therefore, to seek employment through their own efforts. In many places, the workers' guilds assisted 'Journeyman' in their travels in search of work by posting the lists of local vacancies in 'Journeyman's hostels'. Besides, some of the philanthropic agencies carried on placement work incidental to their major activities.

The Industrial Revolution and subsequent transfer of population from agriculture to industry demanded an organized machinery for the recruitment of labour. During the 19th century, labour organizations gradually began to take up that work. They took keen interest in the placement of their members when they were unemployed. However, the employers did not like the idea of labour unions controlling the labour market and therefore set up their own employment bureaus to compete with the activities of labour unions.

By this time, the workers who were not properly organized began to feel the need for a systematic placement service. This was particularly true of domestic servants, with the result fee-charging employment offices were organized for them. In due course, these agencies extended their services to those in other trades also.

These fee-charging agencies often collected exorbitant fees which rose very high during critical shortage of employment. In some cases, the fees collected were shared between the agency and the recruiting officer.¹ Also some exchange authorities showed preference to workers who paid higher fees. Further as various agencies were working in competition, more workers than necessary were frequently sent to employers. The report of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations states: "Men are told that they will get more wages than are actually paid, or that the work will last longer than it actually will, or that there is a boarding house when there really is an insanitary camp or that the cost of transportation will be paid when it is to be deducted from the wages. They are not told of other deductions that may be made at the places to which they are sent, nor about other important facts which they ought to know."² Such were some of the evil consequences that accompanied the development of agencies that were conducted for profit.

State Regulation.—To cope with the situation the first legislative measure was passed in France in 1852 and other countries gradually followed suit and today the business of conducting a commercial employment agency is regulated in most countries and entirely prohibited in a few.³ The practice of running employment exchanges as a commercial enterprise was denounced by the International Labour Conference in 1919; and consequently in 1933, the Conference adopted a Draft Convention providing for the abolition of fee-charging employment

agencies conducted for profit.⁴ Agencies of this type are gradually disappearing altogether.

The recurring depression during the latter half of the last century brought to the forefront the problem of unemployment; and many began to realise that employment exchanges were the proper institutions to combat this evil.

In Europe and America first efforts in this direction were purely at a municipal level. In 1848 'Free Information Bureaus' were started in each of the 'Mairies' of Paris. In 1860, such offices appeared in New York and San Francisco. These offices were not effective in tackling the problem as they were poorly staffed and under-financed. Since many of the offices were controlled by relief agencies, skilled workers did not make use of these offices, thinking that it was below their dignity to get employment through relief agencies.

The next stage of development in the organization of employment exchanges was during the serious depression that occurred at the close of the last century. In many European countries, Provincial Governments began to aid the Municipal Agencies with finances. In some cases, municipalities started voluntary schemes of unemployment insurance. The effective administration of such constructive programmes by the exchanges won the admiration of the public.

Nationalisation.—At the beginning of the present century, a need arose for the co-ordination of various placement agencies. But this was purely on a voluntary basis. The Association "des offices Suisses du Travail" of Switzerland and "Verband für

¹ Douglas H. Paul. *Problem of Unemployment*, (MacMillan & Co., New York, 1931) p. 268.

² Report of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations Vol. I (1916), p. 111.

³ I.L.O.: *Abolition of Fee Charging Employment Agencies* (Geneva) 1932, p. 4-5.

⁴ I.L.O. *Employment Exchanges* (Geneva, 1933), p. 1-2.

Deutschen Arbeitsnachweisen" of Germany were organized on these lines.

Yet another important landmark in the growth of employment exchanges was the plan for the nationalization of the whole organization. England was the first country to take the lead in this direction. Acting according to the Report of the Poor Law Commission, it provided in 1909 a net work of offices covering the whole country. Other countries then followed; Switzerland in 1910, Sweden in 1916, Finland in 1917, Canada in 1918, and Germany in 1922.

Wars help their Growth.—Other factors like war helped a speedy growth of this institution. World War II gave a fresh impetus to the development of employment exchanges all over the world. In many cases, belligerent and neutral countries began either to build up new or strengthen the existing agencies. They served as organized recruiting centres to obtain workers for essential war services. In India, employment exchanges had their origin in the National Labour Tribunal which was set up during World War II to control the Indian labour market.

A Machinery was needed for the rehabilitation of demobilised personnel. The exchanges were found most useful in this connection. Hence Governments of all countries in Europe took immediate steps when hostilities ended in 1945 to reorganize their exchanges on sound lines. The International Labour Conference held in 1919, adopted a draft treaty on employment services. The Second article of the treaty reads as follows:

"Each member which ratifies this convention shall establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority. Committees which shall include representatives of employers and workers, shall be appointed to

advise on matters concerning the carrying of these agencies."

This convention was ratified by 28 countries.

The growing adoption of unemployment insurance schemes by several states needed the help of an organized system of employment exchanges for effective administration. At first, exchanges were entrusted with the payment of unemployment compensation benefits. Later on, they were assigned the responsibilities of either securing jobs for claimants or issuing a certificate that they were unable to secure suitable employment for them, so that they might be entitled to secure the benefits of unemployment compensation.

Finally, there is a growing recognition all over the world of the need for a full employment policy and of the importance of a strong employment service. In the United States of America, the present policy is to broaden the scope of employment exchanges.

Evolution of Employment Exchanges in India.—Compared with the European countries, India had no organization which could be described as a forerunner of employment exchanges. Nor was there any necessity for such a one. In all the industrial centres, except a few like Bombay and Jamshedpur, the bulk of labourers is drawn from the neighbouring agricultural districts, with the result there is always a surplus. The employers did not, therefore, feel the need to organize any institution for a systematic recruitment of Labour. The Royal Commission on Labour (1931) observed that the old methods of recruitment were still employed for many industries, particularly plantation, mines, etc.; but the majority of employers of the factories need go no further than their factory gates.

Garden Exchanges.—Dr. Radhakamal Mukherjee in his book on "Indian Working

Class" gives a plan for "Garden Labour Exchanges", and "Mining Labour Exchanges" in order to overcome the acute shortage of labour in them. He feels that they can be established with the co-operation of planters and Government and thinks that they will help transformation of unregulated importation of semi-slave labour into controlled movements of free labourers to and from the gardens. Similarly, he suggests a central exchange in every mining area to avoid the recruitment of workers by individual collieries. Such an exchange can adjust the surplus of labour in one colliery with the contemporaneous scarcity in another. This also brings together the miners who seek employment and collieries which require labour. Mr. S. R. Deshpande, in his report on an enquiry into the conditions of labour in the coal mining industry in India, observes that recruitment through petty officials like *sirdars* and *munshis* often leads to bribery and corruption and instances are not wanting in which an unwilling worker from a village is lured to a mine with false promises of high wages and pleasant conditions of work. He, therefore, suggests that employment exchanges should be set up not only in the coal fields but also at places from where workers are recruited.⁶

In the case of the perennial factories, the shift of labour market from the distant villages to the gates of the factories did not appreciably alter the evil consequences associated with the old type of recruitment. Recruitment work in many cases, is left to the intermediary or the jobber. He supervises the workers at work and exercises, in practice, the powers of dismissal, punishment and grant of leave. Thus the workers depend on him for the security of their jobs and for promotion. This system has given

rise to the serious evils of bribery, corruption, and favouritism which call for immediate remedy.

Taking into consideration all the above mentioned evils, India also ratified the convention to establish employment exchanges throughout the country as "one of the means of preventing or providing against unemployment", at the First session of the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Even though the convention came into force on 14th July, 1929, India could not do anything in that direction due to organizational difficulties. Besides, the Royal Commission on Labour in India (1931) opined that, in view of the industrial condition of India, employment exchanges could be of little use either in solving the unemployment problem or maintaining correct statistics of the unemployed. They even suggested that it would not be wise to start exchanges at the time when most factory owners could find sufficient labourers at their factory gates.

Against the recommendations of the Royal Commission, there was a general feeling amongst both the employees and the employers for the establishment of employment exchanges throughout the country. This was manifested in several ways either by establishing individual exchanges in certain parts of the country or by giving evidence before the various labour enquiry committees and commissions appointed by the Central and the State Governments.

In India, Ahmedabad was the first city to start an employment exchange on scientific basis in 1936. Even though it was sponsored by the Ahmedabad Mill Owners' Association it could not make much progress due to the lack of co-operation on the part of the workers, who demanded some share in the

⁶ S. R. Deshpande, Report on an Enquiry into Conditions of Labour in the Coal-mining Industry of India, 1946, p. 26.

management and control of the exchange.⁶ In the scheme prepared by the Millowners' Association, the objective of the exchange was "to adjust the supply and demand of labour by creating a machinery through which the employers and employees could come into contact and suitable and deserving persons could be selected for vacancies without the least delay."⁷

At the same time, the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association felt the evil consequences of recruitment of labourers by jobbers and gave the following reply to the questionnaire of the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee:—

"Under the present system the power of recruitment, dismissal and promotion has been left, in practice, entirely into the hands of the head jobbers and mukadams whose calibre, status education and competency for such a responsible task cannot be considered adequate....Whereas hundreds of efficient and competent workers are roaming about in the streets of Ahmedabad for want of employment, a large number of fresh and incompetent workers are seen working in the mills on jobs for which they have no qualification or experience. The eagerness of the jobber to make money by bribery is no less responsible for unjust dismissal, resulting in a large turnover. All the attempts to stop corruption are doomed to failure in the absence of a labour exchange."⁸

In 1940, the trend of the evidence given before the Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee was in favour of establishing public employment exchanges to root out

the evils associated with the recruitment of labour by the jobber. The representatives of the Bombay Provincial Trade Union Congress, Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association, Sholapur Labour Union, Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, The Bombay Government Labour Officer and others advocated a Government sponsored employment exchange. The spokesmen of the Bombay Millowners' Association however, considered that the establishment of exchanges was neither necessary, nor desirable since *badli* control system was working properly in the textile mills of Bombay, driving out corruption and bribery in the recruitment of labour. But the Committee, in their final report, pointed out some of the limitations of the *badli* control system and observed that the *badli* system prevented the *badlis* holding cards in one mill from securing employment in another even though there were vacancies. This system also necessitated a larger body of surplus labour to be always attached to each Mill. The Committee was in favour of establishing employment exchanges in the province for organising what might be called the "Labour Market."

In 1938, the Cawnpore Labour Enquiry Committee recommended the establishment of labour exchanges in the following terms: "We believe, that if vacancies and substitute lists are filled by reference to labour exchanges, a very important step would have been taken towards the elimination of bribery and corruption associated with recruitment."⁹

The Bihar Labour Enquiry Committee, in 1940, came to the conclusion that labour exchanges should be established as an experiment worth trying even though many difficulties had to be faced in the beginning. The

⁶ Bombay Textile Labour Enquiry Committee's Report (1940), Vol. II. p. 350.

⁷ Ibid., p. 348.

⁸ Ibid., pp. 48-49.

⁹ Report of the Kanpur Labour Enquiry Committee (1939), p. 58.

Committee suggested that the success of the exchange depended on the active co-operation of workers to register themselves in the office and the employers to steadily make use of the exchange for securing their men.

Mr. Kabiruddin Ahmed, M. L. A. a member of the Royal Commission on Labour, while dealing with the recruitment of seamen observes "the complete inadequacy in the present system of recruitment, the bribery to which it gives rise and the general demoralization call for even more stringent regulations."¹⁰ He suggests that the future recruitment of seamen should be effected only through free employment bureaux set up by Government in important recruiting ports.

From the above-mentioned instances, we now know that the establishment of employment exchanges in the country was keenly felt in different quarters in India. The isolated attempt of an employer or a group of employers cannot, however, have the desired effect. Here again, the jobber can have his influence in recruitment with the aid of the departmental heads. This is exactly what is happening in the jute mills of Bengal. In many mills there, labour officers are put in charge of labour bureaux, through which recruitment of labour is made. On receiving an application from the department, the labour officer selects the best men available from the waiting list. In many cases, the departmental head does not approve the men selected by the labour officer and suggests a list of names from whom selection is to be made. Generally, labour officers who are not entrusted with wider powers, merely act as tools in the hands of departmental heads.¹¹

Similarly, the Northern Employers' Association established an employment exchange in Kanpur in 1938, which was run on a

purely voluntary basis. The exchange was in a position to place 86% of the total number of workers who had registered their names in the office during the year 1942-43. This organization could eliminate the evil consequences of recruitment by jobbers to a great extent but used to discriminate against unionized workers. To quote Dr. Radhakamal Mukherjee, "the establishment of a national system of employment exchanges, is the only way to get over the manifold abuses which are associated with the present system of recruitment."

National Labour Tribunals.—With the outbreak of war in 1939, keen shortage was felt all over the country for technical personnel to man the industries engaged in war production. To meet this special deficiency, the Governor-General promulgated the National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, on 28th June 1940, under the provisions of which National Service Labour Tribunals were set up in different parts of the country. These Tribunals were entrusted with the threefold task of "tapping the employment market, redistribution of available man-power and the training of skilled and semi-skilled labour" to meet the exigencies of war. In order to put into practice these various tasks, the Tribunals were given wider statutory powers to fix wages and terms of service of an employee and to compel an employer to relieve a technical personnel or an employee to take up a job in national service. In short, the Labour Tribunals controlled the engagement of technical personnel for better prosecution of war.

As the war progressed, the Government of India began to feel the necessity of building up an employment service organization to facilitate an orderly re-absorption of technical personnel into civil life, when

¹⁰ Report of the Royal Commission on Labour (1931), p. 490.

¹¹ S. R. Deshpande: Report an Enquiry into Conditions of Labour in Jute Mill Industry in India (1940) p. 9.

hostilities ceased. Since the National Labour Tribunals had already gained some experience in the field, it was decided that, in the initial stages, the employment exchanges should function under the control of the Tribunal. Under this scheme, early in 1944, employment exchanges were started in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Ahmedabad, Kanpur, Lahore, Nagpur, Delhi, Karachi, and Jamshedpur. Local committees consisting of representatives of the employers, employees and Government were constituted to advise the managers on all aspects connected with the working of the exchange.

To cope with the imminent problem of transition from a war to peace economy, the Labour Department of the Government of India, in consultation with the Provincial Governments, set up towards the end of March 1945 a separate Resettlement and Employment Organization under the Director-General of Resettlement and Employment. Thus a co-ordinated system of employment exchanges, consisting of one central, nine Regional and fifty-nine sub-regional exchanges was started.¹²

The Director-General directs, co-ordinates and supervises the work of both the Central and the Regional Sections of the Resettlement and Employment Organization. He is assisted in this work by four separate directorates, namely, the Directorates of Resettlement Advice Service, Directorate of Employment Exchanges, Directorate of Technical and Vocational Training, and Directorate of Publicity. Each regional organization is a replica of the Central Organization and is under the control of the Regional Director of Resettlement and Employment. The regional exchanges are intended to co-ordinate and direct the work of the sub-regional exchanges. Each regional exchange has a

separate Women's Branch under a Woman Employment Officer. An Appointment Branch to deal with the placement of highly qualified persons is also provided for at the regional exchange.

Working of the Exchange.—The working of the exchange is purely on a voluntary basis. Neither the employers are compelled to notify their vacancies, nor are the employees forced to register their names at the exchange. Whenever a worker is sent to an employer for placement, the latter has every right to accept or reject the worker. Moreover, the exchange never comes into the picture when wages and other terms and conditions of employment are fixed. These are left entirely to the discretion of the employer and the employment seeker. Thus the main function of the exchange is only to bring together both the employers and employment seekers, by matching job qualification against job requirement.

When a worker goes to the exchange for help, details regarding his name, address, age, educational qualifications, experience, occupational history, type of employment required, with alternatives desired, are recorded on an envelope-form. This form facilitates the filling in of all the correspondence relating to an applicant inside one's envelope-form.

After making the necessary entries, the envelopes are first classified into industrial groups as follow:

- A Group: Engineering, Electrical and Industrial Supervisory trades.
- B Group: Building, Road, Wood, Painting, furnishing and allied trades.
- C Group: Railway, Road transport and Airways.
- D Group: Shipping, Dock, Dockyard, and Shipping Yard, etc.

¹² Figures and classification refer to pre-partition India. After partition, India was divided into nine administrative regions, viz., Assam, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Orissa, Delhi and Ajmer, Punjab, Madras, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal.

Afterwards each group is further classified into trades as shown below:

- A I Smithy.
- A II Foundry.
- A III Machine Shops.
- A IV Fitting, erecting etc.,

Each of these trades is further sub-divided on occupation basis as given below:

- A I (1) (Smithy) Foreman, or Charge-men, or Supervisor,
- A I (2) („) Blacksmith,
- A I (3) („) Power Hammer Operator, etc.

After these classifications are made, the cards are kept vertically in special steel cabinets made for the purpose. In each section, cards are arranged in alphabetical order.

Similarly, when a vacancy is notified to the office, the information is entered on a different envelope form, called the order card. On this card, detailed information regarding the address and trade of the employer, number of workers required, duration of the job, rates of pay, grades of skill required, etc., are entered. Separate cards are used for each employer, notifying vacancies and for each of the vacancy notified. All the cards are numbered serially, starting with number one at the beginning of each year. These cards are also arranged in a separate steel cabinet according to the trade index number. These two sets of cards form the live register of each office.

When a vacancy is notified, the cards of the workers who are suitable for the vacancy are carefully studied and the best man satisfying the job qualification is selected. Generally for one job notified, more than two workers are submitted so that the employer may have a wider choice. A letter of introduction to the employer is also supplied to the candidates. The employer is expected to return this note to the exchange, after making the necessary entries as to whether

he has accepted the candidates submitted or if rejected, the causes thereof.

When the exchange recommends a person for a job, the necessary entries are made on his card and his card put in the pending register. This does not in any way prevent a candidate from being recommended for another vacancy. If he succeeds in securing a job at the first submission, his card is transferred to the dead register. If the candidate is not successful in his first attempt, his card is put back in the live register, after making the necessary entries, enabling him to be recommended on future occasion. The same procedure is followed in the case of order cards, notifying the vacancies. Both the types of cards transferred to the dead file, are kept separately till the end of every month for making statistical returns.

Labour Clearing.—If the exchange is not in a position to fill a local vacancy from the list at its office or to employ a person locally, the information is sent to the regional exchange first and then to the central one. This process of reporting of all unfilled openings by one office to another or the actual reference of one applicant from the office at which he got himself registered to another, holding the same opening is known as 'Labour Clearing.' This facilitates the orderly migration of labour in a simple and economical way. By this method the worker travels only to a place nearest to his locality where there is an employment opportunity. This also regulates the migration of labour from one area to another where labour is required.

A PLAN FOR A SYSTEM OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES:

Premises.—In the general scheme for a network of employment exchanges, the premises in which each exchange is to be situated is very important. As far as possible,

it should be situated in a central place. The locality should, however, be easily accessible by the chief means of communication.

Building.—A building situated on an island site is considered to be an ideal place to house the exchange. The building should be externally inviting and internally roomy, clean and well furnished. A good receptionist service, a comfortable waiting hall and pleasantly arranged information materials are often regarded as important elements in an efficient employment service organization. All the interviewing officers should have separate cabins to hold their interviews in private. A separate room should also be provided for employers to interview the applicants, in case the former desire to do so.

Personnel.—The staffing of the employment service is a problem of first importance. The root cause of many a criticism levelled against the organization is the low calibre of the personnel who are entrusted with this work. Utmost care should, therefore, be taken in their selection. They should be men and women of ability and intelligence to deal both with the employers and employees. They should have maturity of mind and quickness in executive matters. "To be a successful officer, he should have just and sympathetic outlook on labour problems, a strong desire to serve employers and workers alike, and necessary knowledge and experience to enable them to render proper service."

In selecting candidates their educational qualifications and experience in handling labour matters and interviewing workers should be taken into consideration. It is better to select graduates of Economics and Sociology as managers. In the selection of interviewing officers, preference should be given to Psychology graduates. Previous experience in interviewing workers should be considered as an additional qualification.

Since efficiency of work at every exchange depends largely on the quality of work done by the interviewing officer, an experienced and well qualified officer is absolutely necessary at every exchange to do this work. It is on the basis of the report made by the interviewer that a person is recommended for a job. If the work is done inefficiently by an inexperienced officer, the after effect will be twofold. First, the employer will feel that the exchange is not in a position to supply the right type of person he wants. Secondly, a mal-employed person will not stick to his job for a long time, and will come back to the exchange for another placement, thereby duplicating its work.

The training of officers should depend on the type of work they may be entrusted with at the exchange. General information on all problems connected with labour and industry should be given to all the trainees. The purpose of training courses as observed by Mr. N. A. Smyth, former Assistant Director-General of Employment Service in the United States, is that all the trainees may uniformly grasp the vision of their work and develop intelligently a standard practice in the field of regularised employment. The trainees should also be instructed in a standardized technique and the importance of local conditions should always be kept in view.

The officer who is expected to do administrative work should, during his training, gain a thorough knowledge of the fluctuations in labour market and trend of unemployment. If the trainee is not a man drawn from the industry, it is advisable to give him practical training in an industrial establishment and thereby enable him to gain first-hand knowledge of industrial problems. Similarly, the interviewing officer should be well versed in vocational aptitude tests, suitable to local conditions, before he leaves the training

centre. He should be taught to make a cumulative and confidential record of each worker he interviews, starting with the school upto his last employment. The interviewing officers should also be given a thorough knowledge in the various occupations in different industries and the efficiency level which each worker should attain to fit into a particular occupational grade. If there are separate trade testers to do this work, interviewing officer should be relieved of this work. To make more effective placements, the interviewing officers should specialize in the placement of workers in a few industries as is widely practised in England.

Follow-up Work:—An efficient net-work of exchanges should have a regular system of follow-up work. It is the duty of the exchange to place an individual in a particular job, it should also see as to how far the placement has been effective, by taking into consideration the progress he is making in the job. A mal-employed person is in no way better than an unemployed one. The follow-up work helps the worker to get over his maladjustment, if there is any, and brings down the rate of unnecessary labour turnover. It also helps to build up better relations between the worker and the employer and thereby the exchange and the employer.

The follow-up worker should be a trained social worker and should have specialized in social case work. He should be in a position to know, whether a person is mal-employed or has personality problems. The follow-up worker should be in a position to give him psychiatric and psychological treatment if the case is of a minor type and in consultation with a psychiatrist, if the case is a major one.

Ministerial Staff:—The ministerial staff of the employment exchange should also be given some special training in their parti-

cular work. The training can be given by the manager of the exchange in collaboration with his assistants. The ministerial staff should understand that the success of the organization depends on the goodwill and co-operation the exchange receives from both the workers and the employers. As Mr. N. A. Smyth, observes, "We have no repressive powers of law, we can justify our existence and establish the long needed and universally desired public employment services only if we make good."

Periodical meeting of the officers of the exchange will help them pool their varied knowledge and experience. At the meeting, talks on various technical aspects of placement work should be arranged as a discussion on difficult and controversial points will raise and maintain the intellectual interest in the service which is apt to become too much of a routine. Yearly conferences of managers of employment exchanges as is practised in the United States, will go a long way in this direction of comparing notes and exchanging experience. Refresher courses to officers and periodical study tours to foreign countries by high officials of the department will also help them to be in touch with the latest developments and trends in this field.

Advisory committee:—It has long been recognised that, for democratic functioning of employment exchange, close and sympathetic contacts with the chief participants in industry viz., management and labour, is very essential. The importance of providing such a machinery was emphasized in the unemployment convention held in 1919, which demanded joint committees in addition to regional and national committees, to be attached to every exchange. The participation of advisory committee in the work of the exchange has contributed to the successful operation of the placement activities in several countries

The main function of the committee is to give effective popularity to the placement agency. The committee should always be on the look out for exploiting as many employment opportunities as possible.

As regards its composition, the committee should have equal number of representatives of both the employers and the employees. Nominations should be avoided as far as possible unless the nominees are representatives of Government. There should be an elected Chairman who should be impartial. The manager of the exchange should be the *Ex-officio* secretary of the committee. Meetings should be held once a month. A women's sub-committee attached to each local exchange can devote special attention to the placement of women.

The advisory committee should have some voice in the administration of the exchange. The committee should have complete authority to investigate into any complaint or criticism levelled against the exchange. The responsibility of planning the publicity work which is suited to a particular area should be left to the discretion of the committee.

Research:—In all aspects of the work of the exchange, there is ample scope for research. In the U. S. A. and the U.S.S.R., research sections are attached to every regional exchange. They can investigate into new methods of selection, interviewing training, placement and follow-up of workers, so that, the placements may be made as effective as possible.

The research department should have a finger on the economic pulse of the country in general and the region concerned in particular. The department should carry on research in the socio-economic conditions of the country and the region concerned and advise authorities to frame effective policies and programmes, in order to save the country or region from any economic disaster.

It should also make detailed study of the labour market and the trend of unemployment and advise Government to evolve schemes either to avert the unemployment situation as a whole, or mitigate its effects.

Organizing Publicity:—Publicity forms an integral part of employment exchange. This is particularly true of a country like India, where there is no special legislation prohibiting the employers from selecting their workmen from an open labour market.

The main object of publicity work in employment exchange is to make the public know of its purpose, policy and programme. It also aims at enlightening the public of the various advantages of the exchange and creating better understanding and participation of both the employers and employees in its activities. The publicity department should also keep the public informed of the employment situation of the area concerned and give out from time to time statistics regarding the number of registrations made, the vacancies notified and the placements effected. The department can be of special value in supplying information to workers about the trades that are busy and the trades in which their qualifications and experience may profitably be used. Similarly, it can periodically supply the employers and their organizations with information on employment situation and the type and number of workers available at the office of the exchange for employment.

Methods of publicity are varied and many. But, what is required in employment service is effective publicity on a nationwide scale. To this end, pamphlets, meetings, posters, motion pictures, exhibitions and other media, should be made use of.

Good public speaking has the additional advantage of arousing the interest of the audience in the speaker as an individual. The publicity officer should, therefore, be on

the look out to create opportunities for outstanding men to speak on various aspects of the problems connected with the employment service. In this connection, the co-operation of the local Rotary Clubs, Chambers of Commerce, and Industry, Employers' Federations, Labour Unions etc., will be very useful. Similarly, the officers of the exchange should be encouraged to read papers on employment exchange at various industrial and social welfare conferences. A regular programme on the All India Radio, once a week, on employment exchange will be a great asset in this direction. Once a week, a broadcast on employment opportunities for highly skilled workers will be very useful. This has been found markedly successful in Sweden.

Hand-bills printed in bold letters bearing the address and telephone number of the exchange will go a long way in giving wide publicity. On the hand bills, special mention should be made that the service is of an entirely voluntary nature. Besides, it should be printed in all local languages and should be attractive.

Calendars, blotters, telephone pads, etc., giving details of the exchange, even though

an old method of publicity, will have a desired effect. Another method of publicity is to exhibit the working of the exchange at important Industrial and Social Welfare Exhibitions.

The *Laissez faire* policy of leaving the man-power of a country to the inexorable law of supply and demand has come to an end. The National Employment Exchange, with a net-work of regional and sub-regional exchange, has taken its place. In a country like India, with her teeming millions, employment exchanges are not a luxury but a dire necessity. The organization is all the more essential when retrenchment in commercial and government establishments and closing down of mills and factories are forcing up the level of unemployment of the country to new peaks. With schemes for social security for industrial workers on the anvil, employment exchange is bound to play an effective and vital role in the collection of man-power statistics, promotion of mobility of labour, distribution of man-power between industries and administration of schemes of unemployment and other allied insurances.

HOW TO EDUCATE ABORIGINALS

T. B. NAIK

In India primitives or aboriginals as they are generally known number nearly 28 million. They have their own customs, beliefs, languages; also their own educational institutions. But learning of new things through literacy is precluded from the scope of their system of education.

The writer in this article, based on his two extension lectures given to the students of the Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya, Jubbulpore, describes the educational institutions of the primitives and the techniques adopted by them for teaching, the defects of the methods adopted by the government and finally enumerates the principles on which the teaching of the aboriginals has to be fixed.

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The education of the primitives of India will be detailed and discussed here in two parts; one: the Retrospect in which the indigenous education will be treated and two: the Prospect in which the ways of educating them will be given in a small compass.

I

The primitives here will denote those tribes who live in the recesses of hills and jungles away from the day to day contact with the general Indian population; who still retain some important and interesting social institutions, customs and languages not to be found with us; and who are designated as scheduled tribes in the Indian Constitution and the census reports. They are also known as aboriginals or *adivasis*. The total strength of these primitives is approximately 28 millions, chief of them being the Gonds in C.P. (about 28 lakhs), the Santals in Bengal and Bihar (about 24 lakhs) and the Bhils in the Bombay Presidency and Rajputana (about 23 lakhs); there are other tribes also such as the Nagas in Assam who still retain something of their ancient glory, the Juangs in Orissa who even to-day are found clad in leaves; the Khonds in C.P. who are notorious for human sacrifice; the Dublas in Gujerat who to-day are semi-slaves of the Brahmin cultivators; the Warlis in Bombay who rose in revolt against their sowkars and contractors in

1947 and the Kurumber, Kanikar, Iruler and Yanadi in South India.

In the Central Provinces these tribes totalled 2,990,701 in 1941 which is about 15% of its total population. Some of these tribes, besides the Gonds, are the Korkus, the Halbas, the Pardhans, the Marias, the Murias the Kamars and the Bhils.

Cultural life of Primitives:—In order to comprehend the scope of the new schemes to be included in and the difficulties to be faced by an educational programme for them a little reference to their cultural life is required. Primitive economy is direct in the sense that the members of the community produce to consume; their occupations are most varied; from agriculture, as the mainstay of most of these tribes, to other subsidiary occupations such as poultry and dairy farming (most of them and the Todas), coal-making (the Warlis), catechew-making (the Katkaris), labour (the Gonds), honey and fruit collection (the Gamits as well as others) and the rest. In spite of their having more than one source of income most of them are poor, the pressure on land and the burden of indebtedness being very heavy.

The religion of these people is not very much different from that of the low caste Hindus; there are various beliefs, superstitions, gods and goddesses. Their various religious activities include magic, sorcery,

fasts, feasts and dances; and their economic and social life is interwoven with a religious fabric. Some of them have also adopted the Hindu gods and goddesses like Rama, Krishna, Durga and others.

Social Customs:—Many of the aboriginal tribes have some important social customs and institutions. Marriage among them is not a sacred tie, as with the high caste Hindus; there are love marriages, marriages by capture, and widow-marriages also. The village *Panchayat* is still strong among the Bhils; the village dormitory where the unmarried boys of a village sleep under the care of an experienced man is an important institution of the Murias in C.P. and the Thereas in U.P. The primitives sing and dance; they have innumerable folk songs on all themes—love, quarrel, birth, death, labour and rest. The Bhil dance has been made famous in the pages of the Hindu epics by god Shankara; the *dadria* and *karma* dances of the Gonds are worth seeing; the Dublas have war-dances as well.

The primitives though most of them are bilingual to-day still preserve some of the old sub-structure of their original languages; and their dialects are very much living even to-day. Gondi is described as a language derived from the Dravidian and the Andhra tongues; Kurukh is the language of the Oraons and is closely connected with ancient Tamil; Bhili is spoken by more than three million people and is akin to Gujarati and Marwari with some very old words not found in any of these languages nor in Sanskrit.

Two characteristics of primitive mentality may be mentioned here because they are important in the context of any educational programme for them. Thinking in these peoples is highly traditionalized; they cannot differentiate thought as thought from the collective representation of the thing or

idea; secondly, their capacity to think in terms of concepts is very much limited; they think in terms of precepts or actually presented things or ideas. It is not meant here that they are prelogical or that these traits are not to be found in other people of India.

Primitive Educational Institutions:—Together with the cultural elements mentioned above all these primitives have some educational institutions also. Though this may come as a surprise, it will not be so if we understand the meaning of education as understood here. It will include any method whereby culture, including not only the social heritage of traditions, customs, institutions and language from the past but also new knowledge and techniques, is transmitted from one individual or group to another individual or group. It involves both learning and teaching.

But they are different from what we have been used to. The forms of educational institutions are correlated with the cultural configuration. Because the content of primitive culture is very simple, their education is very simple, in fact it can and does, do without any formal educational institution. Educational activities, like recreation are informal and exist as an integral part of the daily life and other social activities. Some of the primitive educational institutions are mentioned below.

Verbal instruction through folk-stories, myths and proverbs is common. The importance of folk-stories and fables is recognized by our educationists also. The Bhil epics, for example, are a veritable mine of instructions to the Bhils to remain clean, to abstain from heavy drink, not to sacrifice human beings or not to indulge in promiscuous sex-relations, as the Gods do not like these things. There are proverbs like "He wins who works" or "Rain, manure,

and ploughing bring the grains home" in the Dublas which indelibly impress upon the young generation the virtues of labour and the requirements of a good crop.

A second important method by which these primitives master the techniques of future life is learning by doing. Small children playfully imitate their elders. The primitives have institutionalized these mimic adult activities into annual festivals for the young so that year after year boys and girls go on doing certain things on these days to become experts when they grow up.

The Dublas of Western India have a festival on which their children divide into two parties to marry dolls, one party acting as the bride-groom's another as the bride's; and the elders all the while watch with interest. The main things that are learnt by the children from this, are the sociological position of the in-laws, the familial duties of the bride and the bride-groom and the psycho-sexual side of marital relations. Another example comes from the primitives of central India where the children on the Akhatry day go from house to house with toy ploughs and bullocks making furrows with them before each house, singing, dancing and asking grams from each house-holder. This teaches the boys the method of ploughing and also team-spirit.

Learning by observation is also found among them. Young boys are taken by the parents to the fields and asked to observe what the elders are doing and then follow suit. If repeated instructions fail, ridicule, mockery, and punishment are tried. I saw a Santal boy being beaten by his mother who when asked the reason said "He has no sense. How many times shall I teach him how to weed grass from the fields. He will learn only if he is thrashed".

Specialised Arts and Crafts:—For teaching certain specialized arts or crafts the pri-

mitives have special trainers or teachers. The mastery of an intricate formula requires an intensive study under one who is an expert. Witchcraft which for example is a very complex technique of controlling the supernatural requires a severe training. There are *bhuvras*, medicine-men, religious preceptors and other experts also, who teach at a price.

Puberty is an excellent occasion for the older men to impress upon the neophyte youngs certain cultural observances which they are expected to practise throughout their lives. Torture, food-taboos, restrictions of movements, the natural psychological unbalance—all create a heightened condition propitious for learning. The primitives take advantage of this and in many of the Indian tribes these public initiations are very important, though a little too short, occasion for teaching the young boys and girls.

Last but not the least important educational institution is the village dormitory known as the *ghotul* or the *darbar* among the primitives of the Central Provinces. The youths learn most of their social duties here; develop esprit de corps; come to know the intricacies of sex life; become experts in archery, dancing, singing and other arts under the rigorous but lively control of the dormitory supervision. The girls on their part inculcate in their own dormitory the virtues required for a successful home life; thus these are as it were, very useful schools for building up character and learning the various arts and crafts of primitive life.

But all these institutions do only one thing, though of course as soundly as possible, and that is the passing of the cultural burden on to the shoulders of the younger generation. The learning of new things through literacy is precluded from the scope

of this education. Thus they remain isolated from the outside world and are, therefore, known as illiterate and unenlightened.

It is clearly recognized that we cannot isolate these primitives and treat them as a sort of anthropological specimens; they have to be merged with the all-inclusive Indian humanity. However sound their indigenous educational institutions may be, they have to be supplemented, and not at all supplanted, by many others, because the former, as such, cannot accomplish the great task of this merger of theirs into the fold of civilized communities.

Various governments are trying to establish these supplementary institutions among their primitives in order to make them acquainted with the general run of Indian life. In the Central Provinces, for example, upto the end of March this year 247 primary schools, 28 middle schools and 22 hostels had been started for them. The total number of students receiving education in primary schools was 15,192 of whom 3,475 were girls. Stipends were awarded to 99 students for training in other schools and scholarships were awarded to 39 college, 185 high school and 572 middle school pupils. It is hoped that 44 more primary schools 31 hostels and 31 middle schools will be started.

A report of the West Khandesh District of Bombay says: "In the educational sphere an activity for which there is an ever increasing demand is the hostels for the Bhil boys. Seven of them are run in the district at the expense of the government and ten others receive assistance from local boards and private bodies. The Governor of Bombay visited the Bhil boy's hostel at Chinchpada in 1947 and was impressed by the arrangements made for the comfort of boys who were doing extremely well in their studies."

II

But the efforts in the direction of teaching the primitives of India to-day have not been very much successful. Only one example will be sufficient to prove this. The Baroda State had introduced compulsory primary education decades ago but in 1941 the returns of literacy among the primitives of that State are shown in the following table:

Age group.	Total.	Male	Female.
5—10	23067	18625	4442
11 & above.	957	945	12
Total.	24024	19570	4454

The total population of the State was in that year 2,855,000; thus literacy works out to be less than 1% in one of the most advanced units of India. We can gauge from this the extent of the backwardness of primitive education in the remaining parts of India.

The formal education given to our primitives upto date is of three types with few exceptions here and there; free inducing and peripetic. In the first, education is given freely by the government; in the second the students are attracted by some stipends. While both these types invite the boys and girls to specially provided schools, where they can be taught by teachers, in the last one, parties of workers move from village to village and educate the people. Though the attempts are praiseworthy they have some defects.

Defects in the system of education:— Firstly, that there is no plan in the content of this education is a great defect. We consider literacy to be the content of education, lay too much stress upon it at the cost of the latter and are satisfied if a community only learns to read and write the alphabets without any further progress at all.

Secondly, a complete divorce of feelings between the teacher and the primitive pupils is a great drawback in the present system. The teacher who is in most cases an upper class Hindu goes to them with many preconceptions and prejudices. He does not know the joy and happiness, the stress and strain of aboriginal life and he is not ready to sympathize with anything that is strange to his own cultural make-up. Thus he does not look favourably to the very people whom he has to serve. I know of a teacher in the Gamits of Gujerat who shirked his Work. When I asked him the reason he said "O, these *junglees*! they do not want to study. What is the use? It is better I come away early and cook my food". The teacher is our representative among the primitives and he has been entrusted to reveal our new heritage to them. Unfortunately, with the present attitude of his, he cannot go much on his mission.

Thirdly, the education as it is given at present deals a deadly blow to the primitive singing and dancing. It is a sorry state of affairs to find that the educated Gamits resolved some years back not to sing *lols*, their songs of the Holi festival. Many observers have reported that the literate primitives in the Central Provinces despise their *dadaria* and *karma* dances. Even the folk-stories, proverbs and many other lores are not cared for and forgotten by them once they go to school. It seems, education, as it is given, is not at all healthy for the primitive culture, wherein whatever is golden, is now despised by its own people as leaden. The school-going boy finds himself a stranger in his own home; the literate section of the primitives finds the old culture funny and foolish.

And lastly, examinations prove strenuous to these boys as to all others; and deter them from having any interest in their studies. Punishments, similarly, not known

to them for such things prove a hindrance in the way of individual progress in studies. Any future plan will have to do away with these defects.

The plan will have also to lay down the aims for which they will be educated. The aim should be:

- (a) to conserve and develop whatever is good in aboriginal culture, religion and institutions;
- (b) so to equip the aboriginal that he will be able not only to defend himself against those elements of civilization that threaten to destroy or degrade him, but also to take his place in this rapidly changing world and make his contribution to it; and
- (c) to improve his economic condition.

Programme of education:—Now we pass on to a programme of education for the primitives. In the content, the pride of place should be given to education for life; i.e. to the teaching of some art or craft, fitted to the genius of their culture that will economically rehabilitate them. If they are newer more efficient techniques can be taught to them in their own occupations and if they are taught to do things on a co-operative basis, the primitives will be easily lifted from the present economic morass. Only a few examples will be sufficient to show the way here. The Gonds have a deft hand which expresses itself very well in artistic carpentry as can be seen from their carved doors and pillars. If they are taught to apply their carpentering skill to more than one thing, they will be able to earn quite a good income. The Vitolias in Gujarat are wonderful basket weavers but their main defects are traditional designs and non-varying objects of manufacture, and

their chief difficulties are poverty and non-availability of a good market. If they are taught newer designs and the preparation of various articles of bamboo and cane and if something is done to remove their trade difficulties, they can easily have good income. Similarly better ways of farming, the advantages of kitchen gardening or the techniques of better coal-and-catechew making can also be taught to them. As may be the requirement the art or the craft must be made the basic subject. The third aim will be met, if this is done.

Health should be the second subject which should be introduced without fail. Unhappily the primitives do not know the advantages of keeping clean, of daily bath, of laundered clothes nor of tidy surroundings. They also cannot treat common ailments like malaria or swollen eyes; I have seen many Bhils and Santals weak and emaciated because of chronic malaria. Children with red, dirty and watering eyes are a common sight among the primitives. It should, therefore, be our duty to teach them both cleanliness and other methods of the prevention of diseases.

But a really healthy life does not consist only in a sound body. It should be saturated with joy and optimism. Whatever be the fortunes of our primitives, they still retain that joy easily seen in their dances and songs which are vital to their life and culture. If they are losing it, it is bad both for us and for them. The teaching of songs, riddles and folk-stories as they are found among them, must be made compulsory, so that they remain in tune with their original life to be made much better by economic and health rehabilitation.

Similarly recreation shall not be lost sight of; and they will have those games which are known to them as a part of their culture. Dancing can be a good item in this.

Archery classes have been started for the Panch Mahal Bhils. Their aboriginal games can also be revived: the whole idea is to strengthen their nerve which is trying to get loose because of their contact with the civilized people. The first and second aims will be fulfilled if these are included in their educational programme.

But whatever has been said above is subject to the proviso that literacy be also included in their curriculum, though we do not attach a very high importance to it. Reading and writing is the only means, much better than visual or oral training, which will open up for the *adivasis* the gates of knowledge. A series of readers will have to be prepared to educate them in these basic techniques; the reading material will have to copiously include their own folk-songs, stories and epics; other lessons will bear on their environment and social milieu so that the Bhil or the Gond boy feels that he is amidst his own world, takes a lively interest in his books and easily picks up the material. Thus instead of made to order child poems they will sing their own nursery rhymes and other folksongs; instead of the stories of Rama, Krishna, Rawana and others they will learn the stories of Marang Buru, Rasalu Kuver or Kakda Kukda Vidiya; and instead of the peoples of Europe and America or the imports from China and Japan, they will do much better to know the neighbouring tribes and their lives, or the products of their own regions. The matter will be as perceptual as possible.

The language in the first five primary years should be their own dialects, *e.g.* Bhili for the Bhils and Gondi for the Gonds with rudimentary knowledge, later on in the fourth and fifth classes the regional languages, *e.g.* Gujarati for the Bhils, Hindi for the Gonds and Bengali for the Santals so that, these boys and girls who want to go

further can learn through the latter, because after the fifth class they will merge with other students learning through the regional languages. The script throughout should be of the regional language. Difficulties in adjustment to the new language and instruction through it will be there; but it is a matter of details and not of principles.

One more subject that can be profitably included in their educational programme is military training. As most of the well-known tribes like the Bhils, the Gonds or the Nagas have martial traditions and good physique they can, given proper training, once more regain their martial spirit and become valuable assets to the national militia. That can help some of them to resettle economically also. Thus it should be a compulsory subject for them; and I also suggest a school of All-India Tribal Military Training, if that is a practicable thing, to those who are in power.

The teacher who is to go to them must be a worthy person because as was pointed out earlier he can do much harm as well as good to the primitives. He must be a man who should be sympathetic towards them. Sympathy comes not only by his being a wide-visioned social worker but also and more by his being trained in anthropology and primitive culture. We can deal with a person or a thing if we know him or it very well. It will be better if the training course of primary school teachers includes study in anthropology and culture. Once the teacher has sympathy for the aboriginal students he will try to preserve whatever is good in their culture, the aim for which the aboriginals are educated. This teacher must have another virtue, that is, he must be content to live in isolation, away from his own society, to which he can't go often, as the aboriginal areas are far flung and not easily accessible. He will have to be given some sort of Tribal Area Allowance over

and above what he gets as his pay, in order to pull and not to push him to these areas. It will be best if he himself is an aboriginal, belonging to the same tribe in which he has to teach.

One school for one aboriginal village is not possible. Whether it be the primitives in Gujarat or Mewad their villages are sometimes so small that hardly there are two or three huts in a village; a school for such a village cannot be had. Grigson recommended for Madhya Pradesh few schools at central villages where the boys and girls from neighbouring villages could go; this can as well work for other areas. Wherever it is not possible for the boys to go to these central schools because of distance or other difficulties, a boarding school will be much better. I have seen some such institutions among the Gamits of the Baroda State and they were working very well. The school buildings must be very simple; in fact spacious huts can also serve the purpose; and they must be decorated in aboriginal style and erected on a beautiful site.

Education in these schools should be free and compulsory; there should hardly be any punishment or fine; but a difficult case may be handed over to the village council; and as we have to have a uniform standard of education for all communities examinations will have to be there, but for some years they should not be very strict.

The Director of Public Instruction in each province should have under him a special staff for looking after the various activities under this plan. Their work should mainly be the preparation of text books for the primitives, research in the educational methods to be applied to them, writing and publication of books of special interest to them *e.g.* a small and simple book can be written on the various primitives in different dialects in order to let them know very

happily that there are others like them; another is the folk-stories of many peoples to be presented in various tribal languages. The staff should also supervise over their schools and should keep in contact with the students who have finished their studies in order to know if education is properly used.

An educational programme to be most successful should be anthropologically planned *i.e.* it should be based on some community factors which if properly harnessed can be of great use in the said programme. I will try to show some of these factors here. The economic activities of the primitives are of the shifting type; they vary from month to month and affect their socio religious activities. This seasonal calendar of the economic activities can be an index, showing when the people are free, and where they are to be found, whether they can be humoured or not, what other sources in a particular month can be tapped for an extension programme and why the students remain absent for days together in a particular month.

Division of labour in a family according to sex and hours is highly traditionalized among the primitives and for years to come we may not hope it to break. We will have to take this factor into account for successfully running the primitive schools. If young boys and girls cannot be spared from homes at particular hours in the day because they remain busy then, the school hours will have to be fixed accordingly. From this factor, the teacher with insight will be able to know what the girls should be taught over and above the usual school subjects in order to make them better housewives and mothers. The same source as well as the seasonal calendar may also be tapped for social education work among them.

The village *panchayat* to which a refer-

ence has been made earlier and the village headman who is known as the *Wasawa*, the *Patil*, the *Munda* or the *Pardhan* among different primitives is one more factor which can if sympathetically treated help very much in the work of the teacher and the educational authorities. If the *panchayat* and the headman can be brought round to see the advantages of education, they will spare no pains in sending all the boys and girls to school. The primitives are very gregarious; and falling away from the group is very rare among them; so what the *panchayat* wants to be done will be easily done. If by chance the *panchayat* does not see eye to eye with the teacher, he will have to close his school for days together till wisdom prevails. Akin to this is an adult circle which can be prepared to help the future of education among them. All primitives put a premium on old age, believe in it at all costs and if we want to spread our ideas further and deeper than at present, a well informed circle of old men will have to be created so that it will be a great help to the informal education of their sons and daughters in the field and in the family. For the creation of this circle, the social education plan of the Central Provinces Government can be much useful, with only one change; it must have a greater emphasis on verbal instruction and less on reading and writing than is placed in the said scheme, because training in literacy is bound to be wasted in the primitive old men for there will be rarely any occasion when it can be used. With this change, the scheme can be applied to them in full under proper guidance. The village *panchayat* and the headman will easily bring the old people for this programme.

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by the authorities for assisting them in this programme. If the teacher be an aboriginal himself, he can join the dormitory supervisor and help him in instructing the boys in many things supplementing the work of the former.

This then is the Retrospect and the Prospect of primitive education. The plan as laid down here may have difficulties when it is actually put into practice; so it may have to be readjusted in the light of experience.

WOMEN LABOUR IN JUTE INDUSTRY OF BENGAL

A MEDICO-SOCIAL STUDY

M. N. RAO AND H. C. GANGULI

Women are taking an increasingly greater part in the wealth producing activities of the country. By joining industries they have given rise to special health and personnel problems which cannot properly be solved unless specially studied.

The writers in this article attempt to survey women in jute industry primarily from an occupational point of view. More importance is given to the gynaccological and social aspects of woman's life spent inside the factory.

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The visible wealth and prosperity of a country consists of the totality of the utilities—goods and services—produced by its citizens. But it is the happiness and contentment of its citizens that is the real index of the progress and prosperity of the State. As the years pass, women are taking an increasingly greater part in the wealth-producing activities of the country. The problems concerning the health and efficiency of women workers are peculiar and cannot be directly compared with problems concerning similar employment of men in industries. Women workers give rise to peculiar health and personnel problems mainly because of their specific physiological process like menstruation, pregnancy and menopause. The woman in industry has additional family and social responsibilities in her capacity as housewife and mother. Socially women have a different background. Physically also women are different from men. They are built on a smaller anatomical scale, their stature, sitting height, arm-length, strength of grip etc. being smaller. Thus women workers are different from men workers physically, physiologically and socially. Consequently, by joining industries women have given rise to special health and personnel problems which cannot properly be solved unless specially studied.

Indian women workers:—The exact number of women workers up-to-date in

Indian industrial establishments—factories and mines—is not available. Exact figures are available only for certain groups of mines, *e.g.* in the Asansol coal mining area in 1947-48 there were about 12,500 women workers out of a total of some 70,000 miners, thus giving an approximate percentage of women workers as 18% of the total working strength. Interpolating this percentage in all groups of mines in India one arrives at a figure of some 70,000 women workers. For lack of exact figures a similar interpolation has been attempted for women workers in registered factories. Presuming that the percentage as existing in one Province, *viz.*, Bombay, to be the same for all India, the number of women workers in Indian factories come to about 3,60,000. Providing for the greater industrialisation in recent years and the increase in unregistered factories and partition of India, it can be estimated that the total number of women workers gainfully employed in factories and mines in the Indian Union come to approximately 4,50,000, a half a million in round numbers. This number of women workers though small in comparison with the U.S. or U.K. is nevertheless large enough to draw the attention of the authorities for the understanding and solution of some of their problems.

Textile industry employs the majority of women and in Bengal Jute Textile Industry is more flourishing. The present enquiry

was conducted amongst women workers employed in the jute industry. In 1944 this industry employed as many as 38,957 women out of a total working strength of 2,89,000 in Bengal alone. This enquiry had three specific objects:

- 1) to understand the social background and home conditions of this group of women workers;
- 2) to determine if industrial work has any immediate repercussion on the worker's general physical health; and
- 3) to know if working in the factory has in the long run any adverse effects on certain of her physiological processes like menstruation, pregnancy, etc;

Three hundred and forty seven women working in a certain jute mill in the Howrah District were examined for this study. The question of selecting the subjects did not arise as these were all the women workers employed by that factory. The vast majority of them were engaged in the preparing, batching, sewing and finishing departments of the mill. The personal interview method was adopted for the examination of these workers. A rather comprehensive questionnaire comprising of all the questions to which answers were sought was prepared. This printed questionnaire was filled in by a specially trained and intelligent lady health visitor separately for each subject after a personal interview with the subject in a secluded room. Every care was taken to see that the answers given were true and not self-contradictory. On the average, each worker was interviewed by the Health Visitor for about 30 minutes. The data was made more reliable by a reference to the records maintained by the Labour Office of the mill, whenever necessary. The questionnaire was codified and the data

analysed by the Powers Samas Calculating Machine.

For a statistical appraisal it was necessary that this group of workers be compared to another group of women living in the same factory 'coolie-lines'; not themselves workers, but belonging to the industrial class with a similar economic and social background. It is such a comparison of the two groups of women, differing only in the matter of industrial occupation that may show by contrast the effect of industrial occupation on the health of women workers. Consequently another group of 359 non-working women were examined in an exactly similar fashion. The Health Visitor interviewed these women of the control group in their homes and filled in the questionnaire. For clarity, the two groups of women-workers and non-workers will be designated hereafter as the experimental group and the control group.

THE WORKER AND HER SOCIAL BACKGROUND.

States of Birth:—The 347 workers in this factory did not come from any one State. The five States contributing most of the workers to the experimental group are U.P (30.7%), Bihar (30.1%), C. P. (13.1%), West Bengal (12.5%) and Orissa (9.4%). The rest are from various other neighbouring States. 24 Paraganas, Howrah and Birbhum in West Bengal; Saran, Muzaffarpur and Arrah in Bihar; Jaunpur, Azamgarh and Gazipur in U.P.; Rajpur and Bilaspur in C.P. and Ganjam in Orissa are the main districts from where the labour was drawn.

Age at interview:—The group is not a highly educated one. The age is estimated from the worker's statement, checked by tracing her history backwards and associating with important milestones in her life, e.g. marriage, child birth etc. The mean

age per worker in the experimental group is 36.8 years with a standard deviation of 12.5 years. There is only one worker as young as 13 years and 8 workers of more than 66 years of age. The majority of the workers falls in the age group 21 to 40. The following is frequency distribution of the working women in different age groups:—

One woman was in the age group 11 - 15 years;
 23 in the group 16 - 20; 40 in the group 21 - 25;
 66 " " " 26 - 30; 47 " " " 31 - 35;
 60 " " " 36 - 40; 21 " " " 41 - 45;
 32 " " " 46 - 50; 20 " " " 51 - 55;
 18 " " " 56 - 60; 9 " " " 61 - 65;
 and two of indefinite age.

Marital status:—Every worker is married at least once. And all except 10 were married before joining the factory. A comparison of figures shows, however, that the workers are married, on the average, earlier than the non-workers of the same socio-economic group. The average age at marriage is, for the worker 9.1 years and for the non-worker 12.0 years. The same is true for second marriages as well. 100 working women were married for the second time at a mean age of 22 years and the mean age of second marriage of the 102 non-working women was 26.2. This difference in the ages of marriage, both first and second, between the two groups is statistically significant ($t=7.84$ and 2.86). The social implications of early marriages of the working women may be important but what these are, we are in no position to indicate.

The size of the family:—The family of the typical working women is not large. If the husband is living, as is the case with 74% of the experimental group, they live together in the 'coolie lines' with their younger children. The number of children living with the family (344 out of 505 living) is however not large. Nearly 46%

of the women had no children living with them and for the rest the majority had only one child living with her. Number of invalids and aged people in the house are not many. 31 working women had each one invalid or aged in her care and 2 women were caring for one invalid each. In contrast to this, 85 non-working women were caring for one invalid or aged each, except two, one of whom was taking care of 3 and another of 4 invalids. Thus the typical house-hold of a working woman consists of herself, a husband and one child, except when she is a widow. Only a very few working women unlike the non-working women are additionally burdened with an invalid or old aged member.

Home:—Over and above the factory work, the majority (87%) do some household work. The usual type of work consists of cooking, cleaning the house and the utensils, washing clothes, etc. A relatively small number (about 50%) has to do some shopping as well. Most of these women (81%) had to bear the burden of household work alone. Almost every women who gets any help gets it from the daughter. A few also get some help from sisters-in-law, mother, etc. The average time which the worker devotes on extra household work comes to nearly 4 hours per day. This is a good length of time when it is remembered that this is in addition to her 8 hours inside the factory. While legislating on hours of work for women factory workers, the extra household work that the women workers have to do should also be taken into consideration so that overwork and fatigue may be avoided especially if the worker happens to be a nursing mother.

THE WORKER IN THE FACTORY

Age at enrolment:—The women started industrial work at different ages. The mean age at which this group took up industrial

work was 26 years and 10 months. 45 women joined at 15 years or less; 68 at 16 to 20 years; 64 at 21 to 25 years; 57 at 26 to 30 years; 36 at 31 to 35 years; 30 at 36 to 40 years; 13 at 41 to 45 years; and 25 at 45 years or more; nine women could not give the exact age.

From the above it will be seen that the maximum number joined up between 16 and 25 years. But those starting factory life before 15 or after 40 years are not too few in number. This rather advanced age of taking up an industrial employment is interesting from the social point of view. It seems that most of them had not planned for this work from the beginning. They took up jobs at the late years perhaps because of circumstances which they had not foreseen.

Reasons for enrolment:—An attempt has been made to determine the reasons as to why they have taken up these jobs. Although it is difficult to answer this in any but general terms, it is not surprising to know that everyone of them gave financial difficulties as the most important reason which made them take to factory work. Widowhood or lack of much work at home was also adduced as an additional inducement to this type of work. As many as 99 out of 347 women or about 28.2 per cent were widows when they first took up industrial employment. But the importance of the

social factor may be gauged from the fact that as many as 49 per cent of the whole group, in addition to financial difficulties, said that they joined the factory, because they had their relatives also working in the factory. It is indeed not usual for a husband or father, anywhere, more so in India, to allow his wife or daughter to be working outside for the whole day unless there is someone working with her whom he can trust to work with the woman. But it seems that the converse is also true to some extent. If one or two members of the family are working in the factory, this would in itself be a reason for the woman of the family to go out for work as well.

Another point may have some important bearing upon the decision of the women to go into industry. It is the number of children she has at that time. Baetjer (1944), for example, has asserted that it is perhaps the women who do not have children for physical, financial or social reasons that take up industrial employment, whereas those with children stay at home. This may be true in a country like U.S.A., where Baetjer's study was made. But it appears to be different in India. The number of children each woman had when she joined factory work has been calculated for the Indian group. All the women except 10 were married at the time. The table below gives the number of children of these women at the time of joining.

Table I.

(Showing the number of children in a group of 276 working women with definite histories).

No. of children alive at the time of the mother joining the factory.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No. of women in each category,	101	72	41	24	15	15	3	1	3	0	1
Percentage of women in each category.	36.6	26.1	14.9	8.7	5.4	5.4	1.1	1.1	0.4	0	0.4

The mean age at which the workers in above group started work is 26.9 years and at that time they had, on the average 1.5 children each. In the control group on the other hand we find that at an age of 27 years 35.5 per cent of the group had no children whereas the average number of children, per woman in the group is 1.5, viz. the same as in the working group. Consequently, there is not much evidence to support the view that it is women with no child or a few children that go to the industry whereas those who stay at home have a larger number of children. The present group of workers, when they joined industrial work, had as many children, on the average, as the control group of non-working women.

Mobility of workers:—The mobility of this group of workers is not very high. The majority of these workers (80.1 per cent) have worked from the very beginning in the present factory. The group mean as regards the number of factories in which a woman has worked comes to 1.24 only.

As per the woman's independent statements, the mean age of the worker at the time she was examined was 36.8 years, the age at which she joined was 26.9 years and the length of industrial work 10 years and 8 months. As the last figure worked out independently tallies with the difference of the first two, it may be reasonably assumed that the error in the women's statements of age and years of work is not very high.

Factory routine:—Inside the factory these women work for 48 hours a week, 9 hours on week days and 3 hours on Saturdays. The 9 hours are divided into two equal parts, one in the forenoon and another in the afternoon, with a break of 1 hour and 30 minutes in between the two. During the break the women mostly go home where they bathe, take their meals, attend to

other members of the family and the babies if any, and perhaps chat or doze a bit. This group had 97 young children who had to be looked after during factory hours. 47 of these are kept in the creche in the factory and another 44 handed over to other members of the family. The remaining 6 are left either in the care of neighbours or largely to themselves. It is note-worthy that inspite of the creche in the factory being quite good and well managed, only about half of the small children are kept. This reluctance of the Indian woman worker to entrust her baby to people who are not her relatives can only be overcome by proper management of the creches and good publicity work on behalf of these.

Posture:—The women are mostly working in the 'batching', 'preparing' or the 'finishing' sections. Consequently, the nature of the work also varies from the feeding of raw jute to the batching or preparing machines, to stitching or carrying jute bags. It was felt that the usual postures in which the women worked may have some bearing on their health and child-bearing function, especially when there are some who are constantly bending down and walking or continuously standing.

It has been found that the large majority of the women (267 in the group) work for a long time standing leading to congestion of the lower parts of the body. Other important habitual postures during work are constantly walking (79 workers), sitting on the floor with legs crossed (53) and constantly bending and walking (11). The work of a few women involves more than one posture.

Fatigue:—The women were also questioned whether they found the work very heavy or not and of any excessive fatigue resulting from the work. 253 women reported the work to be quite heavy whereas

92 workers did not find it so and 2 were undecided. Further out of 265 workers who complained of some sort of fatigue from factory work only 55 reported this to be purely local, the rest, finding it to be a sort of general fatigue and weakness. It may also be mentioned that 76 workers reported this fatigue to be present only during or immediately after factory work as compared to the 132 workers or 50 per cent of the group who felt this to be most marked only after household work. 57 workers reported the tired feeling to be present whenever they do any work either at

home or in the factory. This again demonstrates the importance that extra household work has on the health and ability of the women factory workers and emphasizes the necessity of taking the household duties into account when fixing the optimum hours of work for women.

Maternity Benefits:—The workers interviewed for this study were asked as regards the extent of leave they got prior and subsequent to delivery and the allowance received. Table II summarises the information.

Table II

(Showing the actual maternity leave obtained by 84 women for their last delivery,)

	Wks,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	mean
Before delivery	...	3	6	5	52	2	7	1	8	—	—	—	—	4,3
After delivery	...	2	1	1	6	2	2	—	49	5	3	3	10	8,0

The commencement of maternity leave usually depends on the history of the expectant mother and it is interesting to note from the above table that none of the women left her work till before eight weeks of her confinement. 66 of them or nearly fourfifths of the group preferred to work up to four weeks before the confinement; the majority i.e. nearly 62% of the women however leaving in the fourth week prior to confinement.

As the women are usually given maternity benefits for twelve weeks it is natural to expect that the women who leave their factory work four weeks prior to confinement join back the factory in the eighth week after delivery as a rule. As regards the monetary allowance for these deliveries all except one reported to have got some compensation. Below is given a table of the allowances received by the workers:

Table III.

(Table of total cash allowances received for each delivery)

Amount (in Rs.)	0 - 15	16 - 30	31 - 45	46 - 60	61 - 75	76
No. of cases	15	21	19	14	10	5

Whereas on the one hand one worker got no compensation while another reports to have got only one rupee, on the other extreme there are 5 women who get more than 76 rupees, the maximum being 88 rupees received by one worker. The mean allowance for each delivery comes to Rs. 40/4/-. How much of this money is

however spent, and spent judiciously, for the benefit of the mother and the child remains a pertinent question.

Factory Employment and the woman's Reproductive Pattern.—There have been no reported studies in India so far on reproduction patterns and hence this study is limited in its scope to a comparison of the experimental and control groups only.

Menstruation:—Everyone of the women in the experimental group attained puberty before joining the industry, average age at puberty being 13.5×1.4 years (compared to 13.3×1.2 in the control group). When questioned about any menstrual changes with regard to regularity, cycle, duration or nature of flow the answers were vague and indefinite. 239 women always worked during their periods while 24 regularly absented themselves. The remaining members of the group viz. 84 sometimes work and sometimes did not. When asked if given her choice how many days she would like to take off during her periods, 91 workers did not want any rest whereas 98 could not decide and the average number of days asked for as calculated from the replies of 175 workers comes to 2.2 days.

Industrial work and pregnancy:—Seventy four per cent of the workers examined were in the reproductive age group 16-45 years. All of these were married and about 74% have their husbands living. Consequently the problem of pregnancy in relation to industrial work becomes important. The employment of pregnant women can be considered from two points of view, firstly, the effect of industrial work on the health of the woman and the infant and secondly, the effect of pregnancy on the woman's ability to work. In the present study only the effect of factory work on the result of a pregnancy and the health of the infant has been studied.

Fertility:—It is coincidental that this particular sample of working women are slightly more fertile (2.8 pregnancies per woman) than the corresponding sample of non-working women (2.6 pregnancies per woman), which might be partly due to the older age of the former. In the whole group of 706 women there were thirteen multiple pregnancies; 28% of the non-working women and 13% of the working women were barren.

Fertility or otherwise of a married woman depends upon many factors. One of these factors is the age at marriage. Of the 706 women in this study 48 were married at 18 or over and of these 18 (37.5%) had no children. Of the 658 women married below 18 there were 126 (19.20%) sterile marriages. The greater sterility in late marriages seems to be statistically significant.

Vital losses:—Vital losses can be estimated in terms of abortions, miscarriages, still births and neonatal deaths. The distinction between miscarriage and still birth is purely medical because the mother will not be in a position to estimate the viability of the child. For a similar reason no distinction has been made between prematurity and full term birth, though the difference is of specific importance from the medical point of view. Such distinctions of prematurity and miscarriage are feasible only in institutional deliveries. The table IV below gives the results of the total pregnancies in the two groups in some details. The actual number of abortions, still births and live births are given. Twin pregnancies have been excluded from the data. To show more precisely the effects of industrial employment on pregnancies, if any, the working woman's reproductive results have been analysed as before and after joining the Industry.

Table IV.

(Showing the total number of pregnancies and their results in the 706 women of this study):

	347 WORKING (EXPERIMENTAL) GROUP.				359 NON-WORKING (CONTROL) GROUP	
	Pregnancies before joining industry.		Pregnancies after joining industry.			
		Rate per 100 pregnancies.		Rate per 100 pregnancies.		Rate per 100 pregnancies.
Total ...	642	95.8	277	89.1	868	93.2
Live Births						
Dead in 1 year ...	160	23.9 (249.2)	71	22.8 (256.3)	224	24.1 (258.1)
Still Births ...	12	1.8 (18.7)	19	6.1 (68.6)	31	3.3 (35.7)
Abortions ...	16	2.4 (24.9)	15	4.8 (54.2)	32	3.4 (36.9)

(Figures in Parenthesis represent rates of total losses as measured by losses per 1000 live births),

In comparing statistically the individual data in any of the three groups above, fourfold tables have been constructed for each comparison and the significance of the difference in the data was measured by the X^2 test. Whenever the numbers involved are small Yates' modification is used. Whenever the difference was found to be significant the probability is mentioned in brackets. If it was more than 0.05 the difference is not taken as significant.

From the comprehensive table IV above one cannot legitimately compare the results of pregnancy in the experimental woman and the control woman because part of the reproductive period of the experimental woman (from puberty to 26 years) has been spent outside the factory. If at all the two groups have to be compared the results of analysis have to be taken with some reserva-

tion. Even the same woman's fertility or reproductive pattern before and after joining the industry cannot strictly be comparable mainly because of the age-factor; the woman before joining the industry being younger than after joining. In human biological studies of this kind perhaps all factors can never be controlled; legitimate comparisons can best be made of the same married woman before and after joining the industry.

The vital losses are usually measured by considering the base as full term live birth. Non-full term or Prenatal terminations like abortions and still births are usually taken as percentage of live births. But in this study the antenatal vital losses are taken as a ratio of the total pregnancies. Postnatal vital losses are measured by the infant mortality rate of details before the 1st

birth-day. Neonatal death rate *i.e.*, losses before one month was not specially considered due to chances of errors in the accuracy of the statement of the mother.

Postnatal vital losses:—A comparison of the infant mortality rates between (i) the rates in the women before and after joining and (ii) the rates in the experimental group after joining the industry and the control group does not show any significant difference. Also there appears to be no difference whether the first born or the subsequent born are considered separately.

Prenatal vital losses:—It is seen in table IV that the working group shows different vital losses before and after joining industry. 4.2% of the pregnancies before joining industry were lost as still birth and abortions whereas 10.9% of the pregnancies after joining were similarly lost. A statistical analysis shows that these rates of vital losses of the woman after joining industry are significantly more than what were before ($P=0.01$). If still births only are considered for these women before and after joining industry, the increase in vital losses following industrial employment is 4.3% *i.e.* one in 22 pregnancies. This difference between the two rates is naturally significant ($P=0.01$). An attempt has been made to determine if the same situation prevails for first pregnancies where the risks are more and subsequent pregnancies separately. The analysis has shown that both first pregnancy as well as subsequent pregnancies taken separately behave in an identical fashion. That is, any pregnancy, whether it is a first or subsequent one runs a significantly greater risk of being terminated as a still birth ($P=0.02$ and 0.01 respectively) if it takes place after the mother has joined industrial work than before. This holds true not only for still births alone but even

when we are considering still births and abortions together amongst the first and subsequent born ($P=0.04$ and 0.01).

Table IV also shows different rates of vital losses for the women while they are working in the factory and for women who have never taken up factory work. Still-birth rates for the two groups are 6.1% and 3.3% respectively of their total pregnancies. The percentage of total vital losses per 100 pregnancies is 10.9 and 6.7 respectively for the two above groups. Analysis shows that both the still birth rate as well as the rate of total vital losses are significantly higher in the working group as compared to the control group ($P=0.03$ and 0.02). The differences in these rates for the two groups are however due solely to the greater chance the subsequent pregnancies (and not the first pregnancies) of the working women have in being terminated as a still birth or any other type of loss ($P=0.02$ and 0.03). The rates of still births or of all vital losses taken together are essentially the same in both the groups when only first pregnancies are being considered.

Discussion.—This particular study is not the first of its kind in India. As early as 1923 the Countess of Dufferin Fund engaged Drs. Barnes (1923) and Curjel (1923) to conduct medico-social surveys in two specific areas in India. A third study by Margaret Balfour (1933) is also an interesting reading. These three studies pertain only to women in industries. A fourth study by Ghose and Chandrasekhar (1942) is more exhaustive than the others. But this study unlike the other three combines the experience in seven maternity and child welfare centres in Calcutta of which only one—Clive Jute Mills Maternity and Child Welfare Centre—is from an industrial area. A fifth study by Janaki (1949) is more of a socio-clinical

Study of women working in Tata Iron and Steel Co., Jamshedpur. A sixth and unpublished study by Sen (1950) is an enquiry financed like the fourth one above by the Indian Research Fund Association.

All the above six studies have been conducted by medical women and hence there is a medical bias in these. Unlike these there have been some studies about Indian women in industries purely from the social point of view. Practically every one of them is from the Tata School of Sociology, Bombay by Post-graduate students. Interesting among them may be mentioned by Mehta (38), Deshpande (46) and De (48).

The present study attempts to survey the women in a jute industry primarily from an occupational point of view. Unlike in all the previous studies more importance is given to the gynaecological and social aspects of the women's life spent inside the factory.

In concluding our observations there are some casual points of interest which deserve mention. The type of woman who joins the industry is usually married earlier than a non-working woman of her class. She joins the industry, however, little later. Unlike the males, who usually join at 20 or at least before 25, the average age at which the women in this group joined industry was nearly 27 years. As could be expected the large majority of them joined because of financial reasons. They are hardworking in that in addition to their factory routine they spend nearly four hours on the average working at home. This might be a point of consideration while fixing up the optimum hours of work for women workers.

The most important observation, however, appears to be the significant increase in

vital losses to the women on account of her industrial employment. Our conclusions on vital losses are based entirely on their histories as related by themselves.

It might be argued that in scientifically estimating the vital losses, too much weightage is being given to the memory of the illiterate women. The woman's mental calibre is low and, though she might remember in some exact detail the live births, the memory of either abortions or still births may be deceptive from the point of view of calculation. Also she might give us the exact numbers of abortions in the immediate past but not in the remote past. This might, it can be contended, lead to an erroneous conclusion of greater frequency of vital losses in the immediate past. If it is an industrial group where the woman has joined the industry recently, it might even be wrongly construed that the industrial occupation has resulted in greater vital losses.

To check this an attempt was made to find out from the histories of the women in the control group the number of abortions and still births, for the two contiguous five-year periods, just preceding the date of enquiry. In the five years 1939-43 there were reported by the women 7 abortions and 6 still-births and between 1944-48 the same women reported 5 abortions and 4 still births. If actually the memory for the remote past was failing, the women could have given their histories to indicate the reverse i.e. more abortions in 1944-48 than 1939-43. It therefore appears that these women though illiterate, are mindful and accurate at least as regards the result of their conceptions.

The women's occupation in the jute industry is seen in the study to directly

influence her maternity. Either by comparison of her history before joining industry or by comparison with a control group having a similar socio-economic background an increase in the rate of her prenatal vital losses as a result of industrial employment is noted. Actually every fifteenth conception in women joining the industry is lost over

and above what they would lose otherwise. That this loss is perhaps attributable to maternal causes than infantile causes seems to be supported by the observation already discussed that once the pregnancy results in a live child, the child's chances of survival are the same whether the child is born to a working mother or a non-working mother.

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MUSIC IN SOCIAL WORK

A. M. LORENZO

The dynamic influence of music is recognized in many familiar practices of our environment. Social interest in music is based on psychological needs on various levels of civilization; it is the result of an interplay of forces operating within ourselves and in our functioning. The general psychological levels are indicated in the following differentiation: sensory-motor reaction, and mental responses, the latter including sensory, perceptual, associational and emotional responses. These levels are indicated by the type of response given to a musical experience. The variety and characteristics of possible responses to values of Indian classical music can be utilized in social work. Problems of experimental music are critically appraised by the author in the light of practical application to various fields of social welfare.

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In any healthy society, there are two bases for the development of personality, viz., Work and Play. While *work* determines the means of subsistence, *play* determines the mode of living; the former represents an economic struggle for existence, the latter a social technique of adaptation;—one, the moving force in any direction, the other force moved in the desired direction. It is the happy blending of *work* and *play* in optimum proportions that leads the individual to a perfect adaptation in society, a *fortiori*, prompts the direction of social endeavour toward human welfare and progress.

Play, in a socialised sense, is an adaptive technique. The functional appraisal of *play* becomes at once comprehensible when we consider man, as not merely a bundle of economic wants but, primarily and essentially, a product of his social milieu. Man, therefore, struggles on two fronts to secure a place for himself in society; one, *economic*, as between man and the physical environment, and the other, *social* as between man and man. In its true perspective, however, the bio-economic struggle of man today is veiled by psycho-social motives—the economic means being hitched to social ends. All economic and extra-economic endeavours, therefore, lead to the realization of those social values which comprise human welfare.

In the process of human adaptation, both to physical and cultural environments,

whatsoever promotes the realization of social values, expands and organizes them, is progressive social endeavour; whatsoever frustrates and vitiates them, is regressive social endeavour. Since music, as an extra-economic endeavour, constitutes a cultural means to social adaptive ends, and tends to promote the expansion of life's control, it becomes at once a progressive social endeavour toward evolving the desired social values, and its significance in social organization and social welfare can hardly be exaggerated.

When we come to a serious study of the position taken by music in the polity of human life, there are two points which are most obvious; *first*, that the art, both in its elemental and highly developed forms, has had a widespread and effective influence on nearly all departments of human life; *second*, that in the modern commercial civilization, the development of personality on higher social values, as distinct from baser commercial values, can proceed only on the psycho-social plane of musical aculturation. It is not improbable that its very universal applicability has led social workers to exploit its potentialities in social therapy and social welfare.

Music is the hand maid of social welfare for it constitutes a most perfect technique of social adjustment. It is creative life itself. Now it is axiomatic that a civilization which

lives largely by commercial values, by the sheer power of money, looks upon music merely as the substratum of commercial culture. The development of "music for money" cult has actually accelerated the pace of the progressive debasement of taste, which is reflected in the emotional mushiness, incompetence, lethargy and dishonesty of the machine civilization; yet paradoxically, it is music which, by promoting emotional coherence and control, harmonizes the conflicting values of economic and social interest-groups in modern industrial society, and by creating aesthetic and moral values makes it possible for congeries of individuals to develop into an organic whole.

No theory of social progress dare neglect music. A purely materialistic conception of social progress, with whatever promise of contentment, would be less than human in its spirits. There are social values and goods which are appreciated rather than consumed, and a complete view of happiness must make room not only for the creeds and faiths, but even for the shining illusions of human experience. The progress of any society cannot be fully expressed through the process of utilization and equalization of material goods, since more important for human happiness is the capacity to adequately appraise the fine arts like music and poetry, painting and sculpture, and enjoy them wisely. Music, as a creative force, constitutes one of the indispensable elements of social progress, and by emphasizing the aesthetic and moral values in the development of personality, it acts as an agency of psycho-social control in moulding the destinies both of the socius (the social self) and the society (the socialized group).

creative imagination; that is, it gives the power of *seeing things as they really are*. Through inter-action of individuals and co-action of groups, music tends to evolve social values which comprise the cultural heritage of human society. These are the social values stressed by social-psychologists, and represent those meaningful group objects towards which the members of a society develop certain emotional appreciations and consequent tendencies to act either positively or negatively. Each person, as a result of interchange of social attitudes and values, takes on his admirations and detestations from the cultural and personal milieu in which he lives, modifying it to a greater or lesser extent according to his own strength and position, social and personal. This is the process of appreciation.

Since appreciation is the application to anything of the receptive imagination, it involves both evaluation and intelligence for the reconstruction of the emotional purpose conveyed by music. Evaluation, here, is used with greater emphasis on aesthetic and moral elements, whilst intelligence signifies awareness, capacity to take notice of, and to appraise. In a narrower and more specialized sense, appreciation indicates the processes in which the emotional attitude, which accompanies worth-judgments in moral, aesthetic and idealistic sense, is the fundamental virtue. Without this sense of appreciation, living things, including those simple units at the very bottom of the organic life, cannot obtain the satisfaction which it is the very nature of life to seek. The lack of this primal virtue of musical appreciation constitutes the original sin of the social universe.

2. *Musical Appreciation and Welfare Direction.*—Music is a process of experience with feeling. It is a psychological process of the profoundest significance. It leads to

The subject of musical appreciation may be approached in two ways: (a) *psychologically*, an individualistic point of view which speaks in terms of individual utiliza-

tion and appraisal; and (b) *culturally*, a collective or institutional point of view, which speaks in terms of group utilization, equalisation and evaluation, although recognizing that the specific acts are those of individuals in the last analysis. Nevertheless, the appreciation of music in both these points of view involves three fundamental stages viz. *crude, intelligent, critical*, before selective behaviour alike of the individual and the group becomes a source of social values.

Crude appreciation is sensational, i.e. the first experience of anything, not sufficiently realized to justify or possibly evaluate it. Intelligent appreciation involves judgment, at first elementary, but growing in breadth and value as our apprehension-masses are enlarged. With an ever-increasing bundle of experiences of things formulated, as a rule, into any system of valuation, acquiring thereby a feeling of security, of complete and final judgment, we find ourselves in the domain of critical appreciation. To be fully appreciated, therefore, music must reach the feelings *via* the understanding, and that is why appreciation is defined as realization of value plus appeal. This is a great philosophical truth, fundamental to all music appreciation, and deserves careful consideration in social welfare work *qua* music.

Since musical appreciation involves both feelings and understanding, the emotional purpose of music must be understood before it can reach feelings; it is only then that transition to the critical stage will proceed smoothly and the emotional purpose will be reconstructed by creative imagination. Ignorance of these fundamental principles of appreciation leads to the failure of social welfare work *qua* music, and indiscriminate presentation of music entertainment results in distaste and emotional stress concomitant with mental lethargy and physical fatigue.

Not infrequently music is thought to be appreciated by people when their enjoyment or appraisal is really due to some secondary cause, or, *per contra*, some secondary reason has strangled an appreciation which should be there. A vocal song, for example, in unfamiliar language, may be liked *qua* the tune, just as an appreciation of tea is *qua* drink, or of an excellent book *qua* literature. In order, therefore, to evoke appreciation, music should be employed with purpose in all social work; the social worker should decide whether the message to be delivered by music is *qua* sound or words, or both.

We cannot, however, fully appreciate music without first passing from likeness or preference and thence through artistic knowledge of classics to the ultimate end of being moved to joy or sorrow, mirth or martial ardour, repose or action, in sympathy with the musical message. Knowledge which is necessary for the appreciation of music varies considerably according to the type of music to be appreciated and the objectives and circumstances which are to lead to appreciation. A simple lullaby or slumber song, for example, does not require the same amount or the same kind of music. To obtain knowledge for a fuller and more complete appreciation of classical music, upon which all standard works are based in principle or in construction, we employ both our intellect and emotions. Intellectual knowledge is desirable for grasping the principles of musical architectonics to enable us to judge for ourselves which music is the best; and artistic knowledge is necessary to obtain education for the emotions, through the intellect, so as to learn what to like by being told what is good. Since the appraisal of music depends on the degree to which emotion and intellect are educated, in all fields of social work *qua* music, the intellectual understanding is necessary for directing aright the emotional

understanding and ultimately stirring the soul. Thus, when we turn to the question of appreciation in its relation to interpretation as well as enjoyment, we find that artistic knowledge is necessary to enable the interpreter or listener to get into sympathy with the composer, and to enable music, as Beethoven said, to reach "from the heart to the heart."

To the artistically uneducated, musical appreciation is a difficult task; for, though some may like music by grasping the unimportant details, they may never be able to correlate the detailed features of the design and receive the artistic intention to shape their thoughts and emotions sympathetically. One of the first steps needed to determine constructive application of directed listening to music in social work is to observe carefully and repeatedly what the listeners offer as voluntary comment after each music programme. The subjective listener after hearing a piece of music is likely to talk about himself in commenting on how the music affected his feelings and of what it made him think. The objective listener on the contrary, will discuss the music, the qualities of composition and its interpretation. It is essential to an understanding of these subjective and objective responses, whenever they are to be activated for a specific objective, in order that music may become a social experience.

The social worker who applies music in any form as an aid to social welfare has a very complex task. He has to teach not merely the technicalities of form, perspective, colour, prosody, harmony or orchestration, but also to arouse the understanding of what lies behind these technicalities. He has, therefore, first to learn, and then to teach "how it is done" and "why it is done" before music can become a potent and immediate aid to effective welfare. Without

this artistic knowledge and training, as a precursory measure to musical appreciation, little benefit can accrue either to the social worker or to the beneficiary.

Musical Experience and Behaviour Attitudes:—There exists an intimate relationship between musical experience and psychophysiological changes. Sensations produced in rhythmic waves by musical sounds cause organic changes. The awareness of the introductory notes of music leads to a general preparedness into specific adjustments of the sense organs, which implies a state of attention with action attitudes. Since music is not one but a series of notes, woven into well defined patterns (*thata*) of a series of objects, it sets up a series of muscular and other types of motor preparation for a chain of changing situations. This demands a cumulative process of adaptation through a series of action attitudes sustained by changing organic factors, and explains the continuity of attention from one series of objects to another series of objects, from one pattern of associative imagery to another in one slice of time, as between one slice of time and another, as well as in successive slices of time. This psychophysiological analysis of organic changes, instinctive preparations, and action attitude, for evoking required action attitudes, is an aid directing affective life to desired ends.

Much of what we call "irresistible" in music is caused by this sensory-motor reaction. It occurs, for example, when without our being aware of it we move our head or tap our feet or move our fingers to the rhythm of a tune, or when babies at the hearing of musical sounds kick their legs or start a "rocking" motion of the body. Roughly speaking, the sound-vibrations acting upon and through the nervous system give shocks in rhythmical sequence to the

muscles, which cause them to contract and to set our hands and legs or feet in motion. On account of this automatic muscular reaction many people make some movement when hearing music; for them to remain motionless would require conscious muscular self-restraint.

The possibilities of this sensory-motor reaction in physical exercise and group therapeutic procedures are indeed very great. It has been found that when attention to music is poor, because of fatigue or other reasons, music that is strongly rhythmical may set up a sensory-motor reaction, thus helping many to overcome their inertia and to become active in spite of their fatigue. Thus, when factory workers are tired after a full shift of duty, the strains of a snappy band will release new energies and prepare them for overtime work in times of stress or when soldiers get tired during long marches, a spirited song keeps them going with renewed spirit. Other physiological reactions, that may be observed in response to musical stimuli, such as those occurring in the respiratory and cardio-vascular system, probably belong to the same type of involuntary bodily reaction, and are utilized in physio-therapy *qua* music in hospital social work.

When the sound waves of musical stimuli received by our auditory organ cause not only the involuntary sensory-motor reaction described above, but produce awareness of the musical impressions, this constitutes a sensory response. It is characterized by sensations, that is, feelings of pleasure or displeasure caused by the sounds, and represents the most widespread and least complex kind of mental response to music. One particular type of sensory response to music is the kinetic response. It occurs when the listener becomes aware of a bodily response to music and feels an impetus to

express it in bodily action. Here music incites to marching, dancing, playing or working, which increases the satisfaction obtained from the musical experience. The kinesthetic response engenders a feeling of invigoration. Music which arouses that feeling and thereby the impulse to get into motion has, therefore, special significance in such fields of social work where stimulation of persons is deemed desirable for planned action.

Besides being a sensory experience, the hearing of music is for many of us a stimulus of perceptual or intellectual activity. We perceive form and design and other structural and dynamic qualities inherent in the content of the music, deriving satisfaction from the contemplation of these qualities. This faculty of the mind is essential for an objective interest in music and for the full enjoyment of it as an expression of thoughts and ideals of an aesthetic and otherwise philosophical nature. Intellectual experiences affect the feelings; and a perceptual response usually indicates that the thought associations stimulated by the experience are consciously directed by him. While it is true that increased skill in intellectual discrimination of musical values tends to make a person more critical and, therefore, less easily satisfied, nevertheless, growth in musical knowledge broadens our opportunities for intensive and extensive musical satisfaction.

Music affects other mental functions besides thinking, particularly the emotional life and what are known as unconscious mental processes. These are processes of connecting or associating ideas and their emotional components that are not directed and controlled by our will, intelligence, or conscious moods, but "freely" associated. They are not really free but directed by emotional impulses and physiological con-

ditions of which we are not aware. This type of mental response to musical stimuli is called associational response; its content is highly subjective and often emotional rather than intellectual. Because sensations and emotions are closely related to each other we are likely to respond to music emotionally; our subjective associations indicate where our emotional life is most vulnerable to musical influence. In this lies much of the dynamic and cultural as well as educational and therapeutic significance of the art.

When hearing music is felt mainly as an emotional experience, it results in an intensification of the mood in which the person was before hearing the music, or it may cause a completely different mood. To many people, therefore, a musical composition means a message from the composer, possessing definite moods, and that the hearing of this piece will evoke certain moods in the listener. Because of the prevalence and intensity of emotional responses, it is often assumed that it is the music which instills these moods, and that, therefore, music can be used as a mood builder. Hence the Greek philosophers considered music as a means for the expression of the emotions and an appeal to the emotions, and had some theory or other with regard to the effect of different modes, that is, scales or keys, upon the human passions. The Dorian mode, for example, was considered to inspire respect for the law, obedience, courage, self-esteem, and independence. The Lydian mode, Plato wished to prohibit entirely, as he thought that it, and the melodies founded upon it, had a voluptuous, sensual and enervating tendency; but Aristotle, a little later, considered this scale to have the power of awakening the love of modesty and purity. To the Phrygian mode are attributed the qualities of repose and dignity. Pythagoras also had suggested

the use of certain melodies as antidotes to special passions; it is even related that on one occasion by using a certain melody he brought back the reason of a youth deranged by love and jealousy. The stories of Arion, whose music caused the dolphins to save him from drowning, and of Orpheus who charmed all things with his lute, are based upon such theories.

The grammar of Indian music suggests that the ancient Indians evolved *ragas* which could stimulate characteristic emotional responses as aids to social well-being. The *Bhairavi*, for instance, is suggestive of peace (Shanti) pathos, but it also inspires the feeling of reverence and devotion. Likewise the *Bhairav*, *Todi*, *Kalingra* and *Yaman Kalyan*, are found to evoke socially approved emotional associations and are widely employed in religious and educational programmes. Where the marshalling spirit is emphasized, the *Marwa* and *Malkaus ragas* are successfully employed. *Des* and *Swarat* are soothing ragas, *Tilak-Kamod* and *Pilu* are suggestive of rest and repose, *Kafi* and *Khamaj* are suggestive of cheerfulness—all these varieties can be employed for the entertainment of working classes who are broken with fatigue. Folk songs, which narrate mythology and social history, are generally represented by *Kafi*, *Pilu*, *Khamaj*, *Barua*, *Swarat*, *Sarag* and *Malhar*, and have been the media of mass education in rural areas all over the country. Indian ragas are essentially mood builders, and effective means for the expression of the emotions.

To give music a chance of becoming a helpful influence in the lives of others, one must take into account how it affects the persons to be served and what can be done to make it actually a beneficial factor in a given situation. Indian classical works of musical art are in themselves masterpieces of integrated intellectual and emotional

function and expression. They may lead the performers, as well as, the audience through perfect cycles of emotional and intellectual anticipation and realization. The more fully their aesthetic and dynamic values are given expression in performance, the more such works will inspire and grip us, control our behaviour and direct our action. If we differentiate carefully as to the source of the associated feeling a given piece of music evokes, we may say that many will respond to music having a definite social meaning that is generally predictable. This predictability is based on a theory as to the causes for the effect of the stimulus and the subsequent testing of that theory in order to prove whether it is correct and under what conditions. The next step is of the development of a procedure, which again must be tested, to insure that the desired effect from the stimulus will occur. These are the conditions to which the use of music has to be subjected before musical experience of the individual or the group can be exploited for welfare direction.

Music in Public Instruction:—Music is not merely a means of education, i.e., the manner in which it may be employed to help in the teaching of the facts of knowledge, but is also a force in education. It is the power itself, not merely a medium through which to set that power in motion. Education today is not merely a matter of teaching certain rules and formulae; it is a development of our mental and spiritual powers for which tuition is only one of the means, though possibly, the principal and the most direct one. Education comes not only from things we do learn, but from things we never consciously know, and even the strongest opponents of the systems of such reformers as Dr. Maria Montessori seem to be agreed on this point. It is in this respect that the potency of music as an educational factor or influence is most real and effective.

Music frequently is most educative when intellectually we know least about it, and always when we are least conscious of the manner of its influence. When it produces an immediate and obvious sentimentality, whether its sentiments be virile or effeminate, morose or cheerful, it is least educational. When its influence is more subtle, it is always deeper and more lasting, leaving as it does an ineffaceable mark on the pupil's character. For that reason it is as dangerous when misapplied as it is helpful when applied rightly.

The inherent qualities of music seek for response in the soul, in the character, rather than in the mind. This is why the Greek philosophers condemned certain modes and commended others for the education of the youth. This is also the reason why the continuing melodies of the centuries in India are best adapted for teaching purposes, and why the restless melodies of today (known as popular or film music) serve so ill for these purposes. It is so difficult to tell which of those of today contain the everlasting and always beneficial force of great art-work that it is usually better we should not employ them at all.

Experiments have shown that the purposive Indian classical music encourages feelings of a moral tendency; whilst the popular music encourages the indulgence of the sensual appetites and has, therefore, immoral tendencies. Since the latter induces merely the indulgence of feelings, its effect is always provocative, never restrictive; but the former acts also as the controlling medium of the feelings, and enables a person to employ reason in his action. With classical Indian music of a more emotional but less sensuous type, the effect is psychological. It leaves in the sub-consciousness of the listener the sensation of regular rhythm which forms a criterion not

only of other sounds but of sights and physical sensations of all kinds. Its direct force on the emotions is to encourage action, and as such it can be employed with some certainty of result; and the task of education of the feelings can easily be completed. Therefore, when we say that the influence of music as an educational force depends upon the appraisal of its effects (intellectual, moral, sensuous), we imply also the choice of music and the time and manner of its employment.

To understand the psycho-social function of music as an educational force like oratory, it is necessary first to examine the relation between music and language. Both music and language employ sound as their medium; both communicate some idea; both are the result of some desire for expression; and both are identical with the deepest emotions that lie within the heart of the social man. But music is something more than language. It is not simply sound, but an idea, an urge and an emotional expression. Music is also the expression of those innate impulses which take shape only through special stimuli and within specific social milieu, and impress on that part of the personality which is so very real but is yet undefined and unlocatable in the soul. Since music and oratory, when presented in their most forceful and striking manner, have a greater effect on a large body of hearers than on a small one, a harmonious blending of sound and language should evince greater appeal, more sustained attention, ready response, and lasting moral effect on the modern system of education.

For music to function as a force in education, the study of music should be made from four main standpoints: *aesthetic, i.e.*, a knowledge of art and appreciation; *mechanical, i.e.*, its production and reproduction; *formal, i.e.*, affecting the would-be

musician; and *historical, i.e.*, as an aid to other studies. Whether in schools or social welfare institutions the education of adults and children *qua* music should be fundamentally scientific, because music is bound up with the life of the peoples and its types and manner of presentation ultimately determine the pattern of society. Education in music implies not merely the appreciation of the message conveyed by the musician, but also the appraisal of the spirit of the peoples in space as well as in time. Intimate, therefore, is the reaction between music and history and geography. No other subject appeals so much to what we may call the imaginative aspect of history, as does music, because it implies a deeper insight into the facts which dates and events represent, a knowledge of the real life of the people which makes history itself. Likewise music reflects the environment, physical and cultural, and is a clue to the character of the people as largely moulded by the geographical conditions which surround them. Then too, an analogy between music and other subjects, e.g., literature, painting, sculpture, architecture, and utilitarian arts, may be employed in the teaching of either, or in combination, because a pupil with taste and talent in music will learn certain subjects more easily by comparing and contrasting the function of senses involved in each. A young mathematician, for example, will more quickly grasp the full meaning of his lessons by learning not only the mensuration of music and its precise formal construction, but its emotional qualities which contrast with these. Comparison and contrast are the most powerful weapons in the hands of the teacher, and music affords many and varied opportunities for the employment of both.

Apart from its force as education of and through the emotions, music as a study should have a place in every liberal educa-

tion. Because music in its essence is an emotional art, its relation with the purely intellectual, scientific or technical pursuits is sometimes difficult to see. The study of music as an aid to utilitarian instruction seems to have been sadly overlooked by educationists, especially by those in India. For physical drill and other physical and sensuous purposes, the uses of music are many and acknowledged by all social scientists. How far the art itself and its study may be made use of in scientific and technical education is a matter of careful investigation. In the kindergarten and primary schools in India, where music is the chief medium of basic instruction, there is an unfortunate assemblage of untrained-in-music instructors, who are unconscious of the psychological problems presented to them by those whom they have to teach. Under these instructors, therefore, children can never blossom into colourful personalities. Even the specialized study of music necessary for those who wish to become musicians is generally ignored, and not unoften it is so highly mechanized and commercialized that seldom intelligent musicians are produced to become educationists themselves.

Music for Relaxation and Recreation:— The place of music in relaxation and recreation has now been widely recognized, and it is this aspect of education in musical appreciation which should be of interest to social workers. Since music as an art, is a process of selection and construction, which discovers whatever is most beautiful and most edifying in nature, it places before social workers the manner and the forms by means of which it has its most forceful and beneficial effects on the building of personality.

Relaxation is the state of relief from attention or effort; recreation is the readjustment and rebuilding of the powers

of the mind and the body, which have become vitiated or useless. The recreation of the body or the mind begins with relaxation, and music is the best means to achieve this end.

Primarily music is a sensuous art, though not a sensual one; its appeal is never merely to the senses, though it is always made by means of the senses. The first thing that music expresses, and therefore the first emotion which it arouses, is pleasure. Now pleasure is in itself a relaxation, and the reason why we are able to pursue certain studies, to do certain kinds of work so much better and with so much less effort than others, is that they have within themselves the means of relaxation, or, colloquially speaking, they give us pleasure. We see the general recognition of this in the association of the various factors of life. We couple, for instance, art and past-time, or music and entertainment, or sport and amusement. These activities, when charged with music, become a source of relaxation and recreation, i.e., a loosening of some strain in order that the faculties may be freshly and more freely braced and built up for their work.

Both Plato and Aristotle regarded music as the means which give to the soul strength and vigour similar to that which gymnastics give to the body. But also, like exhilarating wine or refreshing sleep, they thought it should afford enjoyment and recreation. Since music performs the functions of eliminating the deleterious effects of economic toils of infusing the invigorating traits of enjoyment and amusement, and of rebuilding the faculties of mind and body vitiated by fatigue, it at once becomes a potent means of relaxation and recreation.

In our machine civilization, the struggle for existence has become so severe that we have to spend much of our time and

energy on the acquirement of material welfare, and little leisure is made available for the development of higher social values which determine our extra-economic welfare. The popularity of cinema houses and music halls in our industrial towns is not due to growing appreciation of music, but to the exigency of relaxation and recreation. People live to day grim, gloomy, and rigidly regulated, and an hour or two at the music hall releases their inhibitions and rejuvenates them. After a day's work in the factory, behind the counter, or at the desk, it is pleasant to be able to sit down and listen to agreeable sounds which require no thoughts and imagination, in a mild degree and a restful manner. Since fatigue and lethargy are looked upon merely as states of consciousness with a bearing on the physique, a psycho-physiological approach to relaxation and recreation, *qua* music becomes at once necessary. Music programmes should, therefore, be so planned as to refresh workers after toil, to provide amusement and delight, and to divert their interests and energies into aesthetic and recreative activities.

It is hardly necessary to point out that what at one time and in certain circumstances may be a relaxation, at another time and in other circumstances may be a great strain; moreover, that what causes a relaxation of one set of faculties may cause a strain upon others. Therefore, in considering the practical aspect of musical aid to social welfare no definite rules can be laid down as to the class of music which may be employed or the manner of its employment. For one group of people, light music may be a means of relaxation, but classical music may irritate and put a strain upon both mind and body. For another class of audience, difficult intellectual music may cause a greater relaxation because to them a certain degree of mental or emotional

satisfaction is necessary before either mind or body can be entirely at ease. There is, however, a large quantity of music that is both classical and light, that is, which may be taken as a standard model, and which requires little strain on the part of the listener. It is generally cheerful and requires no effort to appreciate, and yet causes no unnecessary or unhealthy excitement. The employment of classical music for social work amongst uneducated working classes and slum children is, therefore, worthy of experiment.

Certain general characteristics which make all music a relaxation should be noted. The most obvious of these characteristics is a sound and regular rhythmic construction. Strongly marked rhythm is easily understood and grasped. It is also by its nature associated with physical recreation. For this reason, it is useful for providing mental relaxation by means of physical exercise. It may be, however, that some do not realize how greatly vocal music may aid physical work by the relief it gives to the feelings. For centuries work and music went hand in hand, because one helped the other, music providing constant relief to the mind and thus preventing undue fatigue; whilst work provided a basis of rhythm for the music. Nevertheless, soothing music must be rhythmical to a high degree; though its rhythm must be more or less subtle. Its pulsations must not be broken up or disjoined, but must flow smoothly on from point to point so that the whole is a complete entity, and any mental effort to connect its parts is entirely unnecessary. Other qualities which help are melodiousness, smoothness of harmony, and most of all a psychological or subjective calmness. Thought may enter as it does into games and light conversation, provided it is not strenuous.

It is high time that participation of music programmes in industrial welfare centres was

initiated in India. Planned opportunities for listening and active participation are the best media of relaxation. And with relaxation comes the possibility of recreation and creative social education.

6. *Music in Hospital Service*:—Music is an important clinical aid in the treatment of selected diseases and pathological conditions. A scientific employment of the power inherent in musical modes has in recent past proved a valuable adjunct to therapeutic procedures, such as physio-therapy, psycho-therapy, occupational therapy, and group therapy.

Physio-therapeutic procedures, also called physical therapy, include among other techniques, muscular training, therapeutic exercise, gymnasium therapy, hydro-therapy, and musical therapy. The results of the therapeutic procedures are seen most markedly in orthopaedic and fracture surgery. By the use of physical therapy, muscle function is maintained until its return to normal; during enforced periods of rest, joints are prevented from stiffening and muscles and tendons from contracting. Continued or permanent disability is thereby avoided. Music is used in physio-therapy as a stimulus of the patient's impetus to exercise his muscles according to specific treatment needs. In this treatment, music is applied as a muscular as well as a psychological stimulus.

Dr. Ida Hyde discovered that cardio-vascular functions are reflexly stimulated concomitantly with psychological effects of music, and through the use of the Euthoven-string-galvanometer and sensitive Sphygmomanometers, the physiological reactions that have been excited by different sorts of music can be measured and compared. She observed that the effect of the National Emblem March showed an increase in the velocity of the blood flow and systolic and diastolic blood pressure, and it removed fatigue and depressed feeling by arousing

muscular activity. A lullaby played on the violin is a sedative to sensitive individuals and exerts the activities of the heart, inhibiting auricular flutter in a patient, and increases the cardio-vascular tonici in general. Thus vocal and instrumental selections of music that exert a favourable reflex action on the cardio-vascular system, have also a favourable influence upon the muscular tone, working power, secretions, digestion, and other functions of the body.

Experiments of Dent on the muscular output of energy in Manhattan State Hospital revealed the most amazing results achieved by means of music. One of his patients lost the use of his fingers. So different kinds of music were played to him daily. Slow, sad melodies increased fatigue. Livelier ones not only dispelled it, but made his fingers move of their own free will. Ginett and Courtier also found that lively major chords, without relation to melody quickened the breathing, single notes increased the action of the heart, whilst rousing melodies affected the nervous system. With deeper and quicker breathing more oxygen flows into the lungs, there is an increased supply of blood, and the lungs get rid of carbonic acid and waste matter. Hence, in some cases, music may be substituted for physical exercise.

In order that music should become a dynamic accessory to corrective exercises to increase the muscular and emotional tonicity, and energetic impetus of patients recuperating from operations, injuries and other physical infirmities, a constant medical check-up is necessary. There are many such cases in which medically uncontrolled muscular and emotional stimulation and excitement caused by unplanned music will set up tensions and incite the emotions that prove injurious to the patient. The kinetic part of the music programme must therefore be well planned and executed by trained and

experienced musicians. To be kinetically stimulative, music need not be loud, but soft and rhythmic; to be attractive, it must be rich and swinging; and to be effective, it must be always well performed. In physio-therapy, since prescribed physical exercises, repeated day after day, are sometimes painful and always monotonous, a great deal of co-operative attitude, endurance and perseverance are demanded alike from the patient, the therapist, and the musician. Stirring rhythms and gracefully swinging tunes will not only set many patients going but will keep them on the move and even enjoying what, without this sonorous support, might be an annoying ordeal.

The interaction of the physical and mental functions causes physio-therapeutic measures to have besides physical effects mental effects, and psycho-therapeutic measures to have both physical and mental effects. Certain treatments involve, therefore, not only the physical but also mental co-operation of the patient, and musical therapy correlates the application of both types of therapeutic procedures.

The term psycho-therapy is commonly applied to measures that are associated with the amelioration or removal of abnormal constituents of the mind. (Psychiatric Dictionary). The psycho-therapeutic value of the use of music in mental treatment is conditioned by the measure in which this application helps to normalize in specific instance the functioning of a disordered or diseased mind. In psycho-therapy, music programme should strive at not merely releasing emotional tensions and providing immediate satisfactions, but also arousing and strengthening interest and participation of the patient in pleasurable aesthetic activity associated with normal life, thereby reducing his opportunity and inclination to surrender to the depressing influences of idleness, boredom, and preoccupation with abnormal

and harmful thoughts. The music activities are an essential first step toward the elimination of unhealthy modes of thinking and abnormal conduct, and the resumption of a normal thought production and socially desirable ways of behaviour which may eventually lead to intellectual self-control.

The use of music in psycho-therapy depends much on plumbing the aesthetic tastes and social background of the cases before treatment. The famous pianist, M. Boguslawski was induced to co-operate in experiments at a Chicago Hospital for the insane. An Italian woman who was so mentally deranged that she refused to look at her baby and wanted to be treated like an animal, was brought into a room where he had just begun to play an aria from "Il Trovatore". Long before the piece was finished, she was weeping and begging for her infant. Another woman who suffered from periodic spasms of epilepsy discovered to her amazement that the attacks failed to develop if a friend started to play the piano. Yet another woman suffering from chronic mania, who had become violent and abusive, was successfully treated by Dr. E. C. Dent of Manhattan State Hospital. A Chopin nocturne was played. Soon her profanity ceased and she was normal again. When a Beethoven adagio was played, her pulse became full and strong. Finally, after listening to 'Home Sweet Home', her skin showed a healthy reaction and grew warm, her nervousness evaporated and she walked back to her room without struggling. Her sleep that night was sound, and in a few weeks she was normal.

The dynamic influence of music on the nervous system opens new vistas of experimental research in musical therapy. Many emotional diseases may be relieved or cured by the application of the right kind of music. And William Van de Wall has records of thousands of cases where music has calmed

rebellious prisoners and dangerous maniacs. Once he faced a violent lunatic, armed only with a portable organ. He induced the man to listen, then to sing and finally, after weekly and then daily doses of music, completely restored him to sanity. During the world wars the medical profession has not failed to make use of music to assist in the cure of nervous complaints brought on by shell shock and strain.

The use of music in hospitals as an aid to Occupational therapy is any activity prescribed by the physician on the basis of physical, mental and emotional factors, controlling the selection of occupations which are a valuable adjunct in contributing to and hastening the recovery from disease or injury. Simple occupations may be prescribed as diversional measures in which the processes occupy the fingers and divert the mind of the patient from his world of fantasy into contact with his surroundings. Well planned music programmes are included in the curricula of theoretical and clinical training with practical orientation in the recreation uses of music activities. Mental hospitals have always utilized patients in their utilitarian activities, preferably such occupations in which the patient was engaged before the onset of his illness and hospitalization. This implies not merely an occupational therapeutic measure, but it contributes also to the economic upkeep of the institution and to the welfare of the hospital population of which he is a member.

Recently, Group Therapy has been tried as a psycho-therapeutic treatment to solve mental conflicts amongst individuals and to strengthen the elements of the population. This is a procedure in which the physician and the musician act as the psychological leaders of a group of mental patients, with the aim of causing the activity to normalize the psycho-social functioning of each mem-

ber of the group and of the group as a social unit. Patient participation in such musical group activities as folk-songs, choruses, rounds, musical games, group dances, etc., is now considered an adaptive technique in social cohesion. These activities tend to stimulate, through the medium of work, sound and action, common modes of thinking and feeling and provide incentives for social organization.

With powers so varied and potential as to uplift or to soothe or to irritate, to heal or to sicken, music should be effectively harnessed for the purpose of reducing or eliminating pathological (illness-producing) biological process. A co-ordinated therapy of music-cum-medicine will not only bring to the sick and the convalescent an experience of joy and encouragement but effectively contribute to the recovery and recoupment of the patient. Today the use of music is being gradually integrated into the hospital service as a means of treatment, but not yet on a large scale. This is due largely to administrative and technical difficulties. If music is to have a beneficial function in therapeutic procedures, a hospital music programme needs purpose, organization and control. These should be the result of a definite guiding policy, expressed through capable leadership of medical men and expert musicians. But, before any music programme is organized and carried out under the control of the hospital administration, the musician should be given a full practical understanding of the unfamiliar forms of medical treatment and hospital procedures. Without such orientation it will be difficult for him to collaborate with the various efforts of the hospital staff in improving the condition of the patient with his own physical and mental powers for definite constructive purposes. The objectives should evolve out of a blending of needs and experience.

GRIEVANCE MACHINERY AND SHOP STEWARD SYSTEM

RICHARD L. G. DEVERALL

Industrial peace depends on sound and healthy employer-employee relations. These can be built up when workers are organized in strong trade unions. The strength of a trade union mainly depends on the machinery it builds up for settling its disputes with the employers. The soundness of a union's grievance machinery in turn depends on the Shop Steward system.

In this article, Mr. Deverall describes and discusses the Grievance Machinery and Shop Steward system as they have developed in the United States and United Kingdom and estimates their contributions to the trade union movement.

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Trade Unions in democratic countries have a history of over one hundred years of slow and sometimes painful growth. In Britain, Australia, Japan, Norway, America, and many other countries the labour movement has had experience with practically every problem faced by labour in any part of the world. Cultures and economic patterns have varied, but the basic problems of wage-earners the world over remain the same irrespective of local and varying differences.

When Unions were first formed over one hundred years ago, the early trade unionists had no stable and lasting relations with the employers. In America, for example, the early trade union struggles concerned only wages and hours. The unions were little more than 'Strike Committees' for, once they had won their economic objectives, the unions fell apart. Further, unions were formed and decayed with the ebb and flow of economic prosperity.

Naturally the trade union leaders worried about the slow and spotty growth of the movement, and the unions sought a method for building their organization strong enough, so that nothing could impede their progressive orderly growth. By the end of the last century, western trade unions began to conclude written collective agreements with employers that gave life and stability to trade unionism hitherto unknown.

And with the growth of collective agreement, methods were devised bringing about rapid solution of the many daily problems of workers. Thus in England and Scotland, almost fifty years ago, the British and Scottish workers devised a method of solution of daily problems which we now call 'grievance machinery'. This so-called grievance machinery is implemented through a system of worker representatives inside each place of work called the 'Shop Steward' system.

The shop steward system first came into prominence in England on the Clyde during World War I, when compulsory arbitration led to a piling-up of unsolved grievances. And in turn, the Shop Stewards emerged as the primary representatives of the organized workers, seeking rapid settlement of their grievances. By 1918, the contracts of the British Trade Unions generally included the Shop Steward system as an integral part of the collective agreements of that country.

The employers were reluctant to grant recognition of grievance machinery because, it meant full and unconditional recognition of the trade unions as integral and equal partners in the management of industry. Many American and British unions underwent serious trouble to recognition of the Shop Steward. In fact, in the United States the

Workers' Union precipitated a decisive struggle with the Ford Motor Company, as late as 1941, in order to displace the private police force of the company with a democratic Shop Steward system, bringing industrial democracy inside the plants and factories of that enterprise.

Importance of Grievance Machinery.—The importance of grievance machinery lies in one simple fact: it enables the trade union to consolidate and to hold its gains. The union members are perhaps from time to time engaged in disputes with the employer, but once they sign a collective agreement or contract, there are no strikes or lock-outs for the life of the contract, usually one year. Instead, by the use of grievance machinery the problems of the workers during the life of the collective agreement are solved in a peaceful and rational manner.

It goes without saying that certain political parties seeking to dominate the labour movement for political purposes have been bitterly opposed to grievance machinery and the Shop Steward system. The Shop Steward system creates peaceful and orderly industrial relation, and in turn efficiency, increased productivity, and a healthy trade union movement. Experience in the United States and England indicates that the stability and integrity of the labour movement is definitely built up and maintained on sound collective agreements and the development of a grievance machinery for rapid and peaceful solution of grievance arising under the terms of the written contracts.

Labour Contract.—A sound labour contract or collective agreement clearly specifies the relations between the employer and the Union. It defines all matters relating to wages, hours and time of labour, and to all other working conditions. A sound

labour agreement has a definite time limit, usually, one year, in western countries as well as in Japan. And the collective agreement generally includes in precise outlines a grievance machinery. Finally, a sound labour agreement provides that during the life of the contract, there will be no strike by workers and no lock-out by the employer. The agreement morally binds both parties to its several terms.

In other words, rather than injure production and needlessly spend union strength in a protracted series of labour disputes, free trade unions the world over seek to write good contracts, live within these contracts peacefully, and then, at the expiration of the contracts, negotiate better contracts. If a strike is necessary, a strike may be used; it is not a daily or monthly strike, but a *now-and-then strike*, called only when all other reasonable methods have been utilised.

This step-by-step process guarantees the building of a sound trade union movement. During the life of each contract, the gains achieved are consolidated. Union strength is jealously hoarded. If and when the next negotiations require use of the precious strike weapon, the full force of the union may then be exerted. But again, once the new contract has been signed, both the employer and the union observe the terms of the contract during its new one-year life.

It is argued by the ideologists that the class war or dispute method is the only way to build sound trade unions. Yet, at the same time, it is common knowledge that workers in every factory and work place have many complaints. One worker may be arbitrarily retrenched; another thinks the canteen is dirty; a third feels the workload is unjustly heavy.

Just ask yourself: Should all workers be involved in disputes and work stoppages

from month to month to settle continually recurring problems? Should all workers with problems wait until the problems accumulate and a Central Strike Committee finally orders a strike? The answer in both cases, obviously, is "NO". Any worker who has a problem or complaint has a right to expect speedy settlement or adjudication of his problem. If something can be done to solve the problem, it should be done as speedily and justly as possible.

To repeat, there are three items in the contract which ensure that the grievance machinery operates properly:

1. The contract has a peace clause—no-strike, no lock-out during the life of the contract.
2. The contract has a definite and effective termination date. The contract automatically expires on that date. The workers are free to strike for a new contract if they so vote, although normally the old contract is renewed.
3. The contract has a carefully specified grievance machinery which refers all unresolved disputes to final and decisive arbitration freely agreed upon by union and employer.

You see, grievance machinery is the system of day-by-day negotiation that takes place on all levels of the union. Its essential purpose is to solve the problems and complaints of workers as rapidly as they arise. It has the subsidiary purpose of promoting industrial peace during the life of the contract. Obviously no country can afford the doubtful luxury of continual labour disputes, sabotages and work stoppages.

Whitley Councils.—The shop steward system should not be confused with the Whitley Councils which came as a result of a Parliamentary Committee on the Relations of Employers and Employed which, under

the chairmanship of the Honourable Mr. J. H. Whitley, in 1917, issued its famous "Whitley Report", recommending that in major industries joint councils be formed in order to promote employer-employee consultation in increased production and industrial efficiency.

Now grievance machinery is a system, set up in advance, to which are assigned only certain definite problems for solution. Grievance machinery is created in order to solve "all complaints and grievances arising under the contract, or matters about interpretation of the contract." It has nothing to do with a Whitley Council or *Works Committee*, which may consider overall problems. *The Grievance Machinery is concerned solely with enforcement of the written contract.* Thus the one and only specific function of the grievance machinery is to settle the problems of workers, arising under the contract as speedily and justly as possible.

Separation of the function of grievance machinery from that of the Whitley Council, therefore, removes the confusion now found in some labour-management relations.

The Whitley Council or Works Committee is one thing; the grievance machinery is an entirely separate and distinct matter.

Grievance machinery, by providing for final and positive arbitration, provides prompt and absolute settlement of unresolved problems. No work disputes regarding enforcement or interpretation of the contract can take place during the specified life of the contract. Thus, grievance machinery minimizes friction, aids in the establishment of democracy in every local place of work, and promotes both stable labour-management relations and uninterrupted production.

Shop Steward System.—Just what is the practical operation of this grievance machinery? How does it work?

In every workshop or other place of work, there are persons such as foremen, supervisors, and works managers who, as executives, represent the employer or the management. Such persons, generally, do not belong to the union, although in some countries they have their own separate unions. They represent the management. The function of these representatives of the employer are to see that the contract is enforced, from the employer's side, that working-place discipline is maintained, and that the work ordered by the employer is carried out in a proper and efficient manner.

Grievance machinery is enforced by the Shop Steward system. In every place, just as the employer has his representatives, the workers elect their own union representatives, a fellow worker, who is called the *Shop Steward*. The function of the Shop Steward is to see that the contract is enforced from the side of the union, that working-place discipline is fairly maintained, and that the work ordered by the employer is carried out in a proper manner under the *terms of the contract*.

The foreman or local supervisor represents the employer. The Shop Steward represents the group of workers who elect him or her.

School of Democracy.—By decentralizing authority within the plant, and by arranging to have foreman meet frequently with Shop Stewards, many persons, even though illiterate, learn how to present an argument, how to argue for the adoption of their point of view, and how to speak in a rational, factual manner.

This aids in the growth of the dignity of many workers right inside the shop, and that, in turn, aids in the production of new leadership inside the local union. Instead of one man at the top doing all the talking and thinking, the use of grievance machinery and the Shop Steward system develops wide

participation in representative bargaining on the part of many union members. The implementation of grievance machinery thus aids in the development of skilled negotiators both on the side of the management and of the trade unions.

The Shop Steward.—*The Shop Steward has the important task of settling disputes regarding enforcement and application of both the letter and the spirit of the contract or collective agreement, concluded between the trade union and the company or employer.*

The Shop Steward is, therefore, the watchdog of democracy in the shop. It is his or her job to keep the workers in his or her department or building informed on union activities, and make them interested in the day-to-day activities of the union. The Shop Steward puts life into the contract, and makes it live. Likewise, by inspiration and example, the Shop Steward encourages all of the trade union members in his or her department to become more and more conscious of the historic mission of the labour union in building a better world for everyone.

Working of the Machinery.—The system works in this fashion. Whenever a worker in any department believes that any particular grievance needs to be remedied, he goes to his Shop Steward and hands him a slip of paper. On it, he briefly explains the grievance, and signs his name or mark. Once a day, usually for half an hour, the Shop Steward leaves his own job and goes to the office of the foreman. He presents the grievance, tells the foreman why it should be granted, and then they discuss the grievance. Perhaps they settle it then and there. If not, the Shop Steward writes on the back of the slip the decision of the foreman, then hands this to the *Bargaining Council*. Once a week, the Bargaining Council will have a meeting with the heads

of the factory, and the grievances not solved on the local shop level, will then be brought up. Again, the Bargaining Council will argue with the top company manager, and they will attempt to reach an agreement. Often agreements will be reached or, as, in some cases, the union and the company may disagree. Then they refer the matter to an *impartial umpire*. Thus the unresolved grievance will go to the impartial umpire (or Labour Board) for a decision.

This has a very important effect in the shop. A worker with a good suggestion on increasing production makes it through his Shop Steward, and the union gets behind his suggestion. If it is accepted, through bargaining, the union has scored and the worker realizes that *his* brain and *his* ideas are important. A worker who needs a safety device on his machine, by going through the union or his Shop Steward, gets that device; and he realizes that the union and the Shop Steward are working for *him*.

And the company too begins to realize that every worker in the plant is a human being with dignity and intelligence; that every worker is working every day to improve his working conditions, his productivity, and his usefulness. The union plays a constructive, positive role in maintaining efficiency and the morale of the workers.

The worker is no longer just a cog in a machine—he is an intelligent, responsible, democratic member of the economic society.

Steward Section.—Take an example of a small factory in one area. The factory employees 500 workers, all of whom are members of a union. The factory is perhaps divided into five sections—raw materials, foundry, machine shop, assembly shop, and warehouse. The union decides that it will have one Shop Steward per 50 workers. The foundry has 100 workers; so they elect 2 Shop Stewards. The machine shop has

150 workers, so they elect 3 Shop Stewards. The assembly section has 100 workers, so they elect 2 Shop Stewards. And finally the warehouse has 100 workers, so they elect 2 stewards. Thus each section.

The system of election will vary from shop to shop, from mine to mine and mill to mill. In a department store, the shop stewards may represent the different departments of the store. On a ship, the stewards will represent different types of seamen. With long-shoremen, the steward will possibly represent different work gangs, and so forth.

Once elected democratically by the workers in their respective sections, the Shop Stewards then meet the union Chairman and other officers of the union, and together the Shop Stewards and the union officers jointly constitute the *Bargaining Council* of the local union.

Thus in electing a Shop Steward to represent them, the workers are usually careful to select a person of intelligence and maturity. They usually elect a man or woman who will work unselfishly to enforce the contract and promote stable labour-management relations. That does not mean that elected Shop Stewards will always agree or disagree with the company. But when they agree or disagree, they do so on the principles involved and with clarity and logic.

Victimization.—A point might properly be raised that an irresponsible or vicious employer will prepare a "black list" of the best Shop Stewards, and as soon as possible sack such men in order to cut out the heart of the Shop Steward system. The specification of grievance machinery in the contract usually includes a clause providing that the Shop Stewards have the highest seniority within their section or department; *i.e.*, in case of retrenchment due to a fall-off in

business, the *Shop Steward is the very last man to be retrenched*. Seniority is generally a safeguard for security of service. This protection against victimization for the Shop Stewards allow them to argue, without fear or favour in defence of his workers.

Recall.—As a safeguard of fair and just representation, the trade union may also provide for the recall of Shop Stewards, should it prove that they are lazy, inefficient, or inclined to represent the company instead of the union. The recall means that, at any time, the workers in a department can take a vote of confidence on the present Shop Steward. If the majority of the workers vote to recall him or her, the Shop Steward is dismissed from the union post, and the workers elect another Shop Steward. This provision of recall means rank-and-file control of the person they elect to represent them. It guards against possible corruption of the Shop Steward by the employer.

Payment of Shop Steward.—The question usually arises: "Who pays the wages of the Shop Stewards when they are finding out remedies to redress grievances?" If a man leaves his job for an hour or two, the employer will probably deduct the lost time from his wages. However, in both Western and Japanese unions, it is the usual practice to include in the contract between the union and the company a clause regarding payment of the Shop Stewards. This includes the number of workers per Shop Steward, and will specify the amount of time per day which *he* or *she* may use for grievance adjustment. The company usually agrees to pay the wages during this specified time. If he consumes more than the time specified, the extra lost time is paid for by the labour union. American unions found that, if the company paid unlimited lost time wages for Shop Stewards, some of them might abuse the privilege and idle the day away.

If a Shop Steward is allowed a time limit of 30 minutes or an hour a day for grievance adjustment, paid by the company, it will usually be found sufficient. The justification of payment is based on the fact that the Shop Steward is working with the foreman to adjust grievances and keep production flowing smoothly. That is important both to the union and the company—although both may have varying interests in the same problem.

Contract Negotiation.—The Shop Steward system and the Bargaining Council have another important function. As the months go by, the Shop Steward in each department becomes an expert on the operations and functions of his department. He knows just what must be done to make production and working conditions better. He knows what the workers want in his department. When it is time to begin meetings with the company to discuss terms for a new contract, each Shop Steward makes a contribution—one department needs this, another department, that. The Bargaining Council meets the Shop Stewards and they write down all the demands of the union. Then at a general meeting of the membership of the entire local union, the demands are read, point by point, and the membership either approves or alters the demand. When the final demands are worked up, the Bargaining Council and the union officials begin their meetings with management, present their demands, and argue intelligently for them if the company will not concede their demands. Because the Shop Stewards know so much about their own department, they are able to give convincing arguments, and quote facts and figures. The Shop Stewards are able to work effectively for a good contract.

Negotiations of grievance are the toughest and most important job for the Shop

Steward or the union representative. The members of your *local* will gauge the strength of your union by the success of grievance settlements. They will regard an unsettled and long seething grievance as an indication of the union's inefficiency, and ineffectiveness.

On the other hand, a swift and successfully processed grievance, well advertised to the members, is an active object lesson of the union's strength and effectiveness. Here is where the Shop Stewards at the local level play the most important role in the union.

What is a Grievance?—A grievance means the apprehension of any unsatisfactory working condition that affects either an individual or group of people. A violation of any part of the contract constitutes a grievance. When any section of the agreement is violated, the Shop Steward does not wait until some member calls it to his attention. He acts immediately by pointing this out to the management, through the Shop Stewards conference with the foreman.

The contract can be violated in spirit as well as in letter. The management may ignore the intent of a certain section of the contract while following the wording of it carefully, and may disagree that their action constitutes a violation. They may misinterpret a clause in the contract. That is why, the understanding of the contract is so necessary, for many grievances flow from improper understanding of the agreement.

Sometimes a member will report that he does not think he is being treated fairly on some condition. At other times, it may be apparent that this is happening although the member may not make any complaint. He may be reluctant about referring it. The Shop Steward informs that, if his grievance is not cleared up, it will eventually affect others. Whatever the factors are, the Shop Steward must be on his toes to see that any

unsatisfactory working condition is eliminated.

Steps in Machinery.—There are several steps to be followed in grievance machinery, depending on the circumstances and the type of enterprise.

In a very small unit of an industry, there may be only one step, direct negotiation between the Shop Steward and the factory owner. If they cannot reach an agreement, the dispute is referred to impartial arbitration within a specified time.

In a larger unit where there are several Stewards, the first step involves direct negotiation between the Shop Steward and the local company supervisor or foreman. There is usually a time limit of two or three days set on this stage. If they cannot reach a mutually acceptable solution in the first stage, then the Shop Steward refers the unsettled grievance to the weekly Shop Stewards' meeting with the management. The time limit on this is usually one week. The management and the entire Shop Stewards discuss each unresolved problem and try to reach a solution. If they cannot, it must be sent out for impartial arbitration at expiration of the time limit.

But in still larger units where there are two or more factories, or in such enterprises as Railways or nation-wide Posts and Telegraphs, there are many work units involved. In such a case, the grievance machinery is very complicated. But the principles remain the same.

1. Each lower unit tries to solve the problem if possible.
2. If unresolved, it is sent to the next higher body *at expiration of the limit.*
3. If unresolved at the very top units of both company and union, it must go to impartial arbitration *within the time specified.*

Impartial Umpire.—Who will be the impartial umpire? That depends upon the agreement reached by labour and management when they write the contract.

In some cases, the union and employer agree to refer all unresolved grievances to the local Labour Relation Committee or Industrial Court for final arbitration. In other cases, employer and union may agree to pick one person from a list of five or ten to be submitted by a local Court Judge or an Industrial Court Chairman. Where private arbitrators are used, both union and management share equally in paying the fee of the arbitrator.

Where large or many units are involved, several methods may be used. One is to refer unresolved disputes to an Industrial Court for final arbitration. Another is to have the Industrial Court name three of its members to serve as a Board of Arbitration. Another method is to name one person in the contract, to be paid equally by management and union, who will serve as arbitrator for one year. Foreign unions usually employ as impartial umpire, college professors, clergymen, lawyers, and other public or professional men. Another method is for the contract to provide that the Industrial Court judge will submit a list of 20 names of public persons. Union and management then select a Board of three arbitrators from the panel furnished.

In industries or services like banking and insurance companies, which have their activities in several provinces and many lower units, it may be found practicable to employ a professional impartial umpire, for, as the months go by, such a person will become familiar with the details of the union-management relations and can really become an expert on their problems. Thus American Unions have used highly paid impartial umpires for years, and have found

this method of settling unresolved grievances the most practical. There is no reason for burdening the Industrial Court with a multitude of grievance disputes for arbitration when both management and labour can afford to hire their own private impartial umpire.

Arbitration.—Whether or not the union and the employer will arbitrate their grievances is, of course, a voluntary matter. But once the union and the employer have signed a contract, they must arbitrate all disputes *as specified in the contract*. This point is raised because frequently workers will object to arbitration of grievances in an inflationary situation when the issue of wages will rise frequently and workers usually prefer *not* to arbitrate wages. That is, of course, no objection to grievance machinery and the use of impartial arbitrators and arbitration. When grievance machinery is included in the contract, it is specified exactly what matters will come within the purview of arbitration and the grievance machinery.

Thus in the case of wages, the contract may provide that, while the question of wages *specified in contract* will be subject to grievance machinery and arbitration, the contract *may also specify* that every three months, or every six months, the question of wages will be reviewed by fresh negotiation. And on that issue, if agreement cannot be found, the workers are free to enforce their demands with strike action as a last resort. In the contract, the union and employer may agree to some type of sliding scale which permits automatic adjustment of wages from time to time, according to variations in the actual cost of living.

Right to Strike.—The above matters clarify the question of whether or not the union loses the right to strike. The use of grievance machinery removes the need

for striking to enforce the contract. If a strike occurs, it is *after* the contract has expired. If wages are *not* subject to grievance machinery, but will be negotiated during the life of the contract, the workers *cannot* strike if necessary to enforce grievance but they *can* strike at the proper time in order to enforce wage demands. Thus collective bargaining is regularized and the union develops its strength through periodic gains.

Use of Grievance Forms:—Most foreign unions employ what they call "Grievance Slips". When a worker has a complaint, he writes out the nature of his complaint very briefly and takes it to the Shop Steward. On the basis of the written complaint, if the Shop Steward feels it is a legitimate grievance, he discusses the matter with the foreman. If the complaint or grievance is adjusted, the Shop Steward turns the settled grievance over to the Chief Shop Steward at their regular weekly meeting.

If the matter is not settled, the Shop Steward makes a note on the grievance as to what the foreman said in explaining why he could not or would not settle the grievance. It is turned over to the Chief Shop Steward. The Chief Shop Steward subsequently, brings up the matter at the regular meeting of the Shop Steward body with the management. By having the matter under discussion in writing, there is no confusion. The Statement of the worker is there, and so is the reply of the foreman. These statements keep going the discussion concerned with the problem, and both management and the Steward know exactly what they are talking about. This helps to avoid confusion and misinterpretation. It also fixes responsibility on the worker, for once he has signed a grievance slip he must be ready to defend the truth of the complaint or grievance.

Foreign Experience.—Experience in America and Great Britain has clearly indicated that grievance machinery and the Shop Steward system work best where there is *good faith* between management and the trade union, where there is a genuine *co-operative spirit*. The Shop Steward system cannot be made to operate by ideological union members who do not believe it is ever possible to co-operate with management. Further, there must be *mutual respect* between management and labour. Each must have a proper regard for the dignity of the other.

Above all, there must be absolute moral honesty in dealings between the union and the company. Deceit, illegal methods, fraud, and dishonest statements or actions will wreck the grievance machinery and the Shop Steward system.

Foreign experience shows that when grievance machinery does not function properly, one or more of these elements necessary for smooth working are missing. Some general principles deriving from such foreign experience are:

Firstly, complaints of grievances should be settled on their *merit*, with an honest presentation by the union, a fair hearing by the employer.

Secondly, grievances should be settled on the *lowest level possible*. This places on the union the responsibility for intelligent presentation of grievances. And it places on the employer responsibility for giving local employer representatives sufficient authority to settle most grievances as rapidly as they arise. *Democracy in industry calls for settlement of as many issues as possible right in the workshop where the problem arises.*

Thirdly, the time limits of grievance machinery should be specific and observed by both parties. The workers will lose faith

in grievance machinery if grievances are stalled or otherwise sabotaged for months. Time limits which are observed will prevent wild-cat strikes or sabotages.

Fourthly, where there are national unions with contractual relations with national organizations, the union has the responsibility of educating and disciplining the membership to realize that while some issues can be solved

locally or regionally, other issues can be solved only at the national level.

Fifthly, the employer is responsible for the training of his representatives in dealing with the union.

Sixthly, the union is responsible for the education and training of the Shop Stewards in their dealings with the employer and his representatives.

NEWS AND NOTES

HANDICAPPED CHILDREN IN U.S. LEARN THROUGH SPECIAL EDUCATION

Special educational services for sick and crippled children are a part of the free education provided by the states of the United States. The first publicly financed school for crippled children was established in the state of Illinois in 1899. Since then, aid to handicapped children has been expanded to provide them with educational opportunities whether they are homebound, hospitalized, or require special schools or special services in regular schools.

These programmes benefit victims of cerebral palsy, poliomyelitis, amputations, congenital malformations, tuberculosis, heart trouble, asthma, rheumatic fever, or less serious, short-time illnesses.

There is no federally supported programme for the education of these handicapped children, since in the United States each of the 48 states operates its own educational system. Most of the children helped are of elementary and secondary school age, but some are older and some younger.

Large numbers of crippled children, particularly those with lesser handicaps, attend regular day-school classes. For many of these boys and girls, special services must be provided, such as transportation, rest periods, physical therapy, and guidance.

Children more seriously handicapped attend special day-school classes. These are sometimes held in separate schools with special equipment and specially trained teachers. A few states provide schools in which handicapped children live. In these schools the children not only are educated but are treated for their ailments. Whatever the form of instruction, the school pro-

gramme is arranged to meet the needs of the students.

The U.S. Office of Education reports a big increase during the past 10 years in the number of sick or crippled pupils who are taught in their own homes or in hospitals. Teachers visit homebound children regularly, usually from two to five times a week. The courses in general are the same as those in regular schools. When the condition of the handicapped children permits, they are encouraged to make friends with pupils from school classes that are doing the same academic work. Letters are exchanged, visits are made to the handicapped, and occasionally the handicapped attend classes in the regular schools.

Some schools broadcast educational radio programmes for children unable to attend schools. Others use a two-way communication device that enables the home bound children to hear regular class sessions and to take part in them. Both devices are intended to supplement and not to replace instruction by the home teachers.

Many local school systems also provide teachers for hospitalized children. Because of the psychological benefits of group activity, an increasing number of classes are organized for all children who are able to participate. Patients are wheeled to rooms set aside as classrooms. Those who are well enough to study but unable to take part in class activities receive individual instruction.

In addition to these educational services provided by publicly financed school systems, there are also some private schools for the treatment and education of sick and crippled children.

INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE—ITS ECONOMIC ASPECT

Dr. H. P. DASTUR

Health is wealth. Industrial medicine builds its economic structure around this axiom. It certainly values money, but people carry a higher value. Modern civilization revolves round its industries, and they are to-day in utter chaos. If there is one thing more than any other likely to restore peace and order, and revitalize them for higher efficiency, it is the new economy of a better place to work and a healthy personnel to man it, the new method which controls work for people and not people for work.

Industrial medicine is something new to India, and the only way to sell it to its businessmen is to convince them that it is an investment and not an expense. Industrial medicine is concerned with the preservation and improvement of the health of operatives of different personalities, and its gains are better morale, improved management-labour relations, incentives, motivation, rehabilitation of the handicapped as gainful workers, elimination of waste, especially human, and similar other advantages.

One definition of economy which Webster's dictionary gives is a frugal and judicious use of money, which expends money to advantage and incurs no waste. When a doctor who practically knows very little about the abstruse theories and principles of economics, applies his mind to the economic structure of a factory, he cannot help concluding that the system is a short-sighted policy which does not conform to the above definition of economy. It may be just the thing for gathering immediate cash benefits, but it does not seem to go far towards developing the factory's inner growth upon which ultimately depends all benefits, cash or otherwise, and for all times, present or future.

It is bad economy to kill the goose that lays golden eggs, but this is just what the *bhaiya* in the milk trade generally does. He is only interested in immediate cash benefits; he will not grudge the buffalo such food as is likely to increase the immediate yield of milk, but at the same time has no scruples about starving the calf, sometimes even unto death, so that he may have some more milk to sell.

It is not unusual to come across an industrialist, who like the above type of the *bhaiya*, is for building an economic system for his business round immediate cash benefits even at sacrifice of its inner vitality and stability. Such a one will readily undertake illumination of his workshop at any cost for running a second night-shift to meet a growing demand for his goods. It however makes no impression on him when told that as seeing is dependent as much on the sight of his operatives as on the light in his work-room, he should get his operatives medically examined to match their sight with the light. As long as he gets immediate profit he refuses to accept that things half done are in the end wholly uneconomic.

A psychologist has said that "Management is development of people, and not direction of things." Speaking generally, an industry is composed of three main parts,—“Men, Methods and Materials,” and the complaint is that while methods and materials receive full attention from professional economists, men enter very little in their calculation, despite the fact that this factor is more important to industry than any other, for, “Production comes from people—not machines.” The economist however is not in a position to apply his principles to men without the help of medicine, and medicine

is today in a challenging position to deliver the goods.

The national wealth of a country is not made up only of material resources like minerals, coal, oil, seeds, etc., but also of its people, their health and their culture. In fact the former without the latter is no better than scrap of no use to any body. The real assets of an employer are not the factory building and machines, but the operatives and their health. Medicine does not pretend to understand the full implications of the economic structure of industries, but feels bewildered that it is not based on spiritual values, for it sees a gold mine hidden behind the health of workers, and only spiritual values can draw it out on the surface, and industrial medicine can supply them.

If a machine develops a minor fault technical experts are always on the spot to remove it before it develops into a major defect. A minor grievance of an operative however is very much like a minor machine defect. If not resolved immediately, it may lead to a major grievance, affect a whole group of workers and may even lead to strike, and nothing ever leads to a bigger all round waste than a strike. Just as it is wise and economic to correct minor machine defects there and then, so must also minor grievances of operatives be liquidated before they develop any malignity in the body politic of the production machine. This is what industrial psychology, an important branch of industrial medicine, attempts to do through the personnel management department of a factory.

The wage rate of an operative noted in the time-keeper's books is a nominal wage. His real wage is his working capacity, the number of days he actually works and the quality of work he puts forth. American statistics go to prove that the gross income

that accrues to an employer through the efforts of his employce is one and a half-times his wages. Every day the worker is absnt from work he loses the whole of the day's wage, and the employer half of it. This has its repercussions on the finances of the state also. The economy that industrial medicine can practise is reduction of absenteeism through improved health of the operative.

The National Association of Manufacturers, New York, in 1941, made a survey of 2,064 establishments to study costs of their medical programmes and estimated that the gross profit on each worker's effort averaged one and one-half times his daily wage rate. The Report of Bhore's Health Survey & Development Committee, 1946 has stated that there are about seven to eight million workers in factories, mines, plantations, transport, etc. Of this about 2.5 millions are employed in large scale factories. The data relating to the incidence of sickness in India are extremely scanty. The Indian Labour Gazette publishes every month figures relating to absenteeism for certain industries. The percentage of absenteeism due to sickness and accident is available only for a few industries: Cotton Mills in the Madras Province, Iron & Steel, Cement, Match and Ordnance Factories for all provinces. The percentages of absenteeism may be roughly taken at 10, sickness and accident accounting for 3 per cent. According to the data collected by Prof. B. P. Adarkar in connection with his report on Health Insurance for Industrial Workers, the maximum rate of sickness is 14.6 days per year per worker.

The present minimum rate of Indian worker including dearness allowance is seldom below Rupees 2½ per day. If the American estimate stated above is followed, and if calculations are based on the minimum rate of absenteeism of 10 days due to illness, regulated factories lose every year

about 3 crores of ruppes in their gross income due to workers' illness. If an industrial health programme can lower the average by one day only, the savings to industries would amount to 30 lacs of rupees. Dr. Heiser after studying records of more than a thousand companies, has indicated that health programmes that are well-planned and administered have time and again decidedly cut absenteeism rates. He found that in 234 companies, the average reduction in absenteeism was 29 percent and that a reduction occurred in 9 out of 10 of the companies studied. The National Association of Manufacturers, New York, referred to above after analyzing losses in plants without a health programme and comparing them with monetary benefits realised from the programme have come to the conclusion that it was not a question whether or not one could afford a programme but that one could not afford not to have a health service.

The economy that industrial medicine understands is that of increasing an operative's working and earning capacity. The grinding wheels of mass production have a tendency to convert human beings into robots of ever decreasing efficiency. Helpful administrations of industrial medicine can however successfully counteract this vicious tendency.

Life is never static. It must move forward or fall backward. Its progress however depends on development of people, and people are made up of individuals, and as each individual has his own distinctive make of body and mind, individual care is necessary. Moreover man is a social animal with herd instincts, and as the methods of mass pro-

duction of a modern industry tend to engender a feeling of insecurity, its workers see safety in herding together and seek security through forming unofficial groups within the workshop and trade unions outside it, and so their development depends as much on due respect for their associated as well as individual sense and sensibility. This is what industrial medicine practises, and in so doing is laying the only foundation on which true economy can raise a lasting structure.

An industrial organization is made up of individuals and depends on their willing co-operation for its prosperity. Money is a direct and powerful incentive for drawing out such co-operation, but only upto the subsistence level. Beyond that non-materialistic incentives gain in importance. Man cannot live by bread alone and is always feeling the urge of self-expression through art, intelligence, religion; prestige, position, social compatibility and other similar motives have a higher value for him than money. That is why industrial physicians lay stress on reserve health as the soundest economy. Money economy when working all on its own is more destructive than creative, for it has a tendency to freeze its sources of wealth. It becomes truly productive only when it is linked up and is subservient to health economy. "Money makes money" is no more true; men make money. To-day the whole world is witness to the fact that money economy has brought in nothing better than an economy of tears, tantrums and want. Industrial medicine claims that health economy can convert it into one of cheer, peace and prosperity.

A PRACTICAL PHILOSOPHY OF REHABILITATION

Rehabilitation is the act of making a disabled person fit to engage in a full-time job comparable to his ability to perform the duties required. In the broader sense, it aims at the transformation of the individual to bring about an improvement in his physical, mental, and social well-being. The word "Rehabilitation" is a new expression with a modern and particular character. In other respects the spirit of rehabilitation is timeless and is behind the impulse which inspires every charitable act of one man towards another less fortunate than himself.

The scheme for the Rehabilitation of Physically Handicapped Persons is provided for in Part VII of the Social Services Consolidation Act which defines the limits of eligibility, the extent of benefits and outlines the objectives. It does not, however, specify how these objectives are to be achieved.

This is in turn dealt with in particular instructions issued to those concerned, but behind even the organization and procedure of the scheme there must exist the feeling and spirit of rehabilitation essential to its successful operation.

The spirit of rehabilitation is not a vague nebulous phrase but a predisposition of mind without which the best results will not be produced. Thus, although it is important to be practical and efficient in regard to routine matters, it is equally important to give each case the most conscientious consideration to ensure that the fullest possible benefits will accrue and to ensure that none is passed over that offers any reasonable hope of success.

Rehabilitation is the finest of all social services. Participation in its work calls for sympathy, enthusiasm, patience, tact, and complete willingness to subjugate one's own efforts to those of the rehabilitation team. In fact, those who do not possess these

attributes are temperamentally unsuited to a place in the Rehabilitation Scheme.

Above all, the sincere co-operation of all those contributing their part towards the rehabilitation of the disabled is vital to the welfare and, indeed, to the existence of the scheme. Skill, brains, and experience must be pooled to achieve the best plan for each individual case.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that the Rehabilitation Scheme belongs not to any particular group of specialists, be they doctors, administrators, social workers, therapists, training or employment officers, but to the combined efforts of them all.

The full gamut of rehabilitation includes acceptance, treatment, vocational training, and employment. Throughout this course, the accent will fall first on one phase and then another so that responsibility falls alternately on individual specialists or groups of officers for medical treatment, training, and placement. In between these stages, however, there must be intermingling of functions so that the threads are finally woven into a complete pattern for successful rehabilitation.

Rehabilitation differs from other social services in that each case is an individual problem, the solution of which very often depends on personal contact and right handling. Its methods cannot be reduced to a formula or a set of formulae. Another difference is that the monetary benefits are relatively unimportant and incidental to the main objective of the restoration of independence and the means of livelihood.

Those properly disposed towards the best aims of rehabilitation will approach their task with a mind free of suspicions, prejudices, and the consciousness of power delegated by constituted authority and backed

by law. The disabled need sympathy and delicate handling. Not only have their bodies suffered misfortune but their minds are often injured as well. In consequence their natures may be warped, introspective and sensitive. This may result in no happier response than rudeness, timidity, stubbornness, fear, and distrust. All this has to be met with patience and the fullest effort to devise means not only to overcome these obstacles but to see that no case where help is at all practicable is set aside.

Apart from the humanitarian side of rehabilitation there are the important economic considerations of increasing the number of employable persons and decreasing the number of recipients of cash benefits. Important as these considerations are it would be regrettable if they were allowed to overshadow the fact that in undertaking the task of rehabilitating the disabled we are dealing in human lives, happiness, and self-respect—commodities which cannot be assessed in terms of money.

The care and consideration which are extended to the physically handicapped in the early stages of rehabilitation should therefore continue until each case is satisfactorily terminated. Vocational training and employment should not be hastily undertaken in order that pensions may be discontinued or that employment figures may be enhanced.

At all stages from acceptance to employment it should be the joint task of all those who have an active part in the rehabilitation of the disabled to endeavour to inspire them with the courage, not only to go through with measures for their own reorientation, but also the courage to face a new life. The thought that society has no more use for a disabled person is a serious deterrent to recovery and this attitude of mind, if it exists, must be dissipated and replaced by faith in his own powers and in his ability to help himself to resume his status as a self-respecting, self-supporting member of the community.

ROLE OF VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES

Voluntary organizations and societies have been for many centuries an important feature of British life and wherever British communities have become established, in whatever parts of the world, there has been at work the same urge for individuals to come together and of their own free will and initiative bind themselves for mutual aid or for the common good. The love of freedom, which I believe is the deepest passion of the British race, has expressed itself in this way above all others; through our groups and societies, some simple and humble, others with lofty purposes and animated by deep religious aspirations, we have given content and meaning to our love of liberty and created the fabric of our British way of life. Think for a moment of your own community

or neighbourhood—of the things which make life interesting for you, of the things you want to give to life, and you will inevitably think of small or larger groups of your fellow men, like-minded with you, who group themselves together in some society, whether for games, recreation, drama or music; for education or indeed, for worship. Your own full life finds its part in the life of others with which you co-operate, and in which you share. There is no people which has expressed its genius in the creation of a varied social life more fully than the British and it springs essentially from this love of freedom—to think and to do for oneself—in uncoerced fellowship with one's fellow men.

There is one important example of this

principle of free association which stretches like a silver thread through the whole of British history and it is of this I wish especially to talk. I refer to the voluntary organizations which exist to provide some service to society or to some section of the community which is in need, whether it be physical or mental, or for the young or for the old. It is no exaggeration to say there is hardly a social service administered and provided by the State which does not have its origin in private and voluntary action. In the old days, the State was little concerned directly with the poor, the sick or the aged, and it was left to voluntary group to care for those in need—often by religious agencies whose members were stirred to action by compassion for suffering and want in others and by groups founded on the principles of mutual aid, such as the Guilds, in the old towns and cities of England. These voluntary agencies were the cradles of our citizenship and the foundations of our community life. It was when the efforts of voluntary organizations became inadequate to the problems of society, particularly after the Industrial Revolution and the rapid growth of great urban populations, that the State began to take action, slowly at first, but then at an increasing pace which in our day almost assumes the proportions of a revolution. In Great Britain there is hardly an aspect of work undertaken and pioneered in the past by voluntary action which is not in some measure affected. The sweep of social change, initiated cautiously 40 years ago by the State, is now truly tremendous. Let me give you some examples:—

First, there is the Beveridge Plan which was adopted by the National Government during the time of war and has since been put into action by the Labour Government. This plan brings into one comprehensive scheme the many efforts made over the past 30 or 40 years by the State to provide finan-

cial security for its citizens against the risks and hazards of life, unemployment, sickness, old age, widowhood; for the crippled, the disabled and the orphans. It broadly provides a basic minimum payment against these hazards and secures for almost every section of the population a means of protection against poverty and sickness. The old Elizabethan Poor Law has been swept away and in its place Central Government has accepted the responsibility for providing in addition to whatever may be secured from the insurance scheme, further financial assistance wherever it is proved to be necessary in individual cases. The old problem of dire poverty which bedevilled the development of our great urban cities and towns in Britain, has now, as a result of these measures, undergone a transformation.

Turn to the realm of education. The minimum school leaving age has been raised to fifteen. Later it will be lifted to sixteen. The re-organization of the whole system provides for secondary education for all boys and girls. The child of under five is to be provided for through nursery schools. Boys and girls who have left full-time schooling will be required to attend what are called county colleges for approximately half their working time each week until they are eighteen. School meal services, which played such an important part in maintaining the physique and stamina of children during the war, have been made a normal feature of school life, while the medical and dental services have been retained and extended. Even adult education and recreation are brought within the scope of the authorities as a proper medium for their service. The work of youth organizations, boys' and girls' groups, the scouts, the guides and many others are also affected, because the same Act of 1944, passed as you see in wartime by the Churchill Government, lays it down as a duty of local authorities to see

that there is adequate provision for the leisure-time pursuits of boys and girls out of school hours.

In the field of health and welfare the changes have been just as far-reaching. The voluntary hospitals, perhaps the oldest form of organized voluntary effort, have, these two years, been taken over by the State and are now operated as part of a national system under the authority of the Minister of Health. By the same Act which made this profound change possible, the local authorities became responsible for certain other services which hitherto have been rendered by voluntary agencies.

The National Assistance Act, another piece of post-war legislation, requires local authorities to provide welfare services for all those individuals in their area who stand in special need of care and protection, for the crippled, the aged, the blind and the physically and mentally handicapped. This has for centuries been a field of work which the voluntary organizations have pioneered. Other Acts of Parliament have extended the State's interest in social service. The Tomlinson Act, passed during the war, was far-reaching measure for the rehabilitation of the physically disabled. Remarkable progress has been made in this field in the past few years and a new hope brought into the lives of many individuals who might otherwise have been condemned to a life of uselessness. More recently, the Children's Act brings under the protection of the State all those children who are denied the love and care of ordinary home life, and has resulted in the establishment of a new children's service headed by specially trained children's officers, whose duty is to seek out and care for, whether in institutions, hostels or foster homes, those children who stand in special need and whose parents are incapable of providing for them or unwilling to do so. There are many societies in Great Britain,

some of them very old, which have laboured to serve just this cause.

In the face of all this manifestation of State power what is there left for voluntary agencies to do? Is their day over? Are they now inevitably consigned to the limbo of things past? I will answer very briefly. After close study of the working of the Acts, I am convinced that there is as great an opportunity for voluntary effort in the future, as there ever has been in the past. Almost every one of these British Acts of Parliament provides for a continuation of the work of the voluntary agencies. In youth work for example, the local authorities in Britain have the power, and they are expected by the Minister of Education to exercise it, to encourage voluntary youth clubs and activities and to provide leadership and finance. The same is true of work for old people, for the disabled, and for children requiring special care.

Then there are fields of effort, which are recognized to belong to voluntary effort rather than to State action. There are many examples of this—I will mention one. It is Marriage Guidance. The rapid increase in the number of divorces in recent years has led to the establishment by voluntary action of Marriage Guidance Centres. There are at present over 100 of these centres providing a kind of repair service for broken marriages and in this difficult form of work they are carrying out a most valued service. The Government, concerned, as it must be, for the stability of family life, has taken an interest in the work. They recently appointed a committee, of which I happened to be a member, to consider what action the Government might take. We were unanimous in our conclusions and the Government accepted our advice. We recommended that work of this character affecting the most private intimate affairs of personal life, should not become an area

for State activity, but should be left to an Act of Parliament to be defeated by administrative action. The great service of Government and authority could easily swallow the smaller services of the voluntary bodies. Great pressure will be exerted on voluntary societies to lift their standards of work and to provide more reliable leadership. This means money, it also means skilled planning, and all round co-operation (an activity in which energetic and enthusiastic voluntary societies do not always excel). But given energy, courage, and vision, I believe the future is bright with promises for voluntary effort in Britain.

A partnership of effort between the statutory and voluntary agencies is now growing up, which, although not new in Britain, is a most striking feature of the post-war situation. This does not mean that all is well or that the future of voluntary organizations is secure. It is quite easy for the intention of

HUMAN TOUCH IN PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

India as a whole is far behind Western Countries in the matter of handling the personnel in industries. A few of the largest organisations have personnel departments approaching modern lines but as far as is known none of the factories with less than a thousand employees ever thought of a personnel department as distinct from a labour office. So when the National-Ekco Radio & Engineering Company with a complement of about five hundred, established a personnel department in August 1949, it was certainly a bold step forward. The author who has specialised in Industrial Medicine in England and has experience in modern personnel management as practised in that country, was put in charge of this department to act both as the Medical Officer and Personnel Manager. The idea of combining the medical and personnel departments is undoubtedly novel in this country and if it proves successful, it will certainly encourage many smaller factories to start their personnel departments.

The National-Ekco was in the process of reorganisation at the time. So one of the

first duties this department had to undertake was the recruitment of one hundred and fifty girls for the purpose of assembly work. It was not possible to get many girls with previous experience in radio assembly, and it was therefore, decided to do away with the old fashioned system of selection and to introduce modern methods. Industrial psychology was applied to select girls who had innate aptitude and qualities suitable for training into efficient assembly workers.

The assembly work is of a repetitive type and needs suitable temperament for resistance against monotony as well as manual dexterity. Manual dexterity really means innate power to control and co-ordinate a number of different muscular movements of the hand. Differences in this innate control makes one person "all thumbs" and another "neat fingered". Both these qualities—suitable temperament and manual dexterity—can be assessed by means of special mechanical appliances. But the use of mechanical appliances was restricted to dexterity tests only for the purpose of this

selection. The temperament assessment was done during interview with the help of specially prepared interrogation.

Two dexterity tests were devised, in each case using appliances to which all girls are normally familiar. One consisted simply of a piece of paper on which two zigzag lines were drawn side by side leaving a very narrow space in between. The candidate was required to cut through this narrow space by means of a pair of scissors without touching either of the lines. The time taken and the nature of movements of the hands and fingers were considered for assessment of dexterity. The second test correlated the actual job more closely. It consisted of a wooden tray on which two radio valve holders were fixed. On the base of each of these holders several small metal eyelets were attached. The test consisted in taking pieces of fine wires from an adjoining tray and passing them through and twisting them round the eyelets. The assessment was done in the same way as in the first test.

All interviews are conducted by fixed appointment thus eliminating long waiting which often spoils the success of many psychological tests. A most informal chat by the personnel manager soon overcomes the initial nervousness of the candidate and sets her at ease. She is then encouraged to talk and the interviewer only puts in a word or two here and there just to conduct the talk in a specific direction. This planned and conducted talk completely reveals the temperament and intelligence of the applicant. The information thus obtained is recorded on a special rating form. Then the candidate is put through the tests described above and is only selected if she comes up to the standard in these tests. It might be interesting to note how far these tests have been found useful. One hundred and seventeen girls have been selected after tests and as an experiment a batch of thirty have been en-

gaged without tests. In the tested group the percentage of failure is nine per cent. whereas in the other group it is thirty per cent. This is only the percentage of failures; if to this is added the better efficiency of the tested group, the benefit derived by systematic selection is certainly considerable.

The other most important duty a personnel department has to undertake is the creation of good human relationship between management and workers and between workers and workers. Deficiency in this is manifested in extreme cases by strikes and hold ups and more often by the increase in the rate of absenteeism. The study of absenteeism is therefore the index of human relations in a factory. The rate of absenteeism in the National-Ekco has shown a steady decline in the last seven months. In August last, man-hours lost due to absenteeism was nineteen per cent of the total man-hours worked. Today it is four per cent only.

How has this been achieved? Initial correct placement in jobs, improvement in the working conditions and good efficient medical facilities are, of course, pre-requisites. But unless the workers are given full opportunity to develop team spirit, job-interest and dignity in their work and unless they can give vent to their creative imagination—good human relationship will not exist. There is only one way of achieving this; through joint consultation. This has been provided by present day Joint Consultative Committee such as Works Committee, Production Committee, Safety Committee and Suggestion Committee.

The National-Ekco started these Committees as soon as the Personnel Department was set up. Works Committee was set up in August. It is composed of an equal number of representatives from the management and workers; workers representatives

being elected by the workers themselves. The Works Committee has an unlimited scope and can discuss anything affecting the factory and personnel with only one exception. No question relating to pay or increment is allowed for discussion in this Committee. How well the Committee is functioning in the National-Ekco can be seen from the quotation given below from the minutes of one of the Works Committee meetings—"Mr. Martin Fernandes, thereupon, exhibited sample components and narrated the difficulties which had been experienced in making and or assembling them, which is the direct cause of inadequate production. He made a number of practical suggestions for improvement and requested the management to take necessary action." This paragraph is only one instance of many such where workers have shown interest in their work.

Space will not permit me to discuss the functions of all the Committees and also other work of the Personnel Department. Each one of these committees has its merit and plays an important role towards betterment of industrial relationship which is so necessary for efficient control of industry.

After reading upto this point one might be tempted to say, "Yes, it all sounds good, but how much is the gain, in rupees, annas and pias. After all saving in rupees, annas and pias all that matters in industry." The answer to this question is that the saving is substantial.

The difference in the failure between two groups of selection is twenty-one per cent. which in a group of 117 is a saving of thirty failures. Now supposing each of these thirty girls had worked for a month before they were detected as unfit, the total financial loss would have been $\text{Rs. } 85 \times 30 = \text{Rs. } 2,550$ (Rs. 85 being the average earning of an assembly girl). This total takes into

account only the loss due to direct pay and not the loss due to lowered efficiency which surely would have been several times this sum. Saving on absenteeism is still more striking. The fifteen per cent improvement in absenteeism in a factory of 500 strength gives equal man-power saving of $15 \times 5 = 75$ everyday. Taking the average daily wage figure as Rs. 4/- per man (and each man produces twice his wage in production value which is a very conservative estimate) the total saving in production would not be less than $\text{Rs. } 8 \times \text{Rs. } 75 = \text{Rs. } 600$ per day.

Most important of all however is the question of operation efficiency. It is generally admitted that the present efficiency of the average Indian factory worker is less than half that of Western standards. In cases where time study is used a direct assessment of operator efficiency is possible and in the National-Ekco Factorics this has shown a marked improvement within the last six months. Even if an improvement of only ten per cent. in this factor is obtained, the actual saving in cost per cent. of production is several times the total cost of operating a Personnel Department.

From this cursory survey of the seven months working of the Personnel Department of the National-Ekco Radio & Engineering Company, it will not be wrong to assume that the novel project undertaken by this small Tata concern is bearing fruit. The Department has fully justified the hopes cherished by the Company's Director and General Manager, Mr. Howie at the time of its inception. We may conclude by saying that it is not impracticable to combine beneficially in small factories the medical department and a personnel department for the sake of economy.

(By Dr. H. Mukerji, Reprinted from Tata Monthly Bulletin).

MODERN DEVELOPMENTS IN LEPROSY

LEPROSY! A word which, despite the almost continuous propaganda of the past fifteen or more years, strike fear into the heart of man. So hysterical is the general public's attitude towards leprosy—and this applies to all countries—that it only needs the announcement of a new cure to set the press tapes ticking all over the world. I welcome the privilege and honour of speaking at the Bombay Presidency Women's Council, for I firmly believe that it is the women of this land who can do more than any other single group to help us dispel the ignorance of leprosy—an ignorance which breeds fear, for what is not understood is feared, and fear results in a cruel and inhuman attitude towards the thing that is feared.

Leprosy, unfortunately, has social implications which are very far reaching. One only needs to remind oneself of the word "LEPER" to realise what social ostracism surrounds the disease, and in many ways the more enlightened the community the greater the social penalties placed on the person with leprosy. So great are they that they lead to the hiding of the disease until infection of others has taken place and gross deformity "set in", rendering the patient a still greater drag on society. One only needs to experience the methods an educated family adopts to hide the knowledge that they have a case of leprosy in their midst to be aware of the social implications. The fear of others knowing is so great that younger members of the household are exposed to infection lest the very precautions, simple though they are, reveal the fact of the disease. Modern developments in many ways have increased this tendency to hide the disease and all kinds of devices are resorted to in order that the fact of treatment may be kept secret.

Before, therefore, an account of modern developments in treatment and in research leading to alleviation of deformity can be given, it would be well to remind ourselves of a few fundamental observations concerning this disease. The basic cause of fear of leprosy is that leprosy in the days of long ago was confused with many other diseases. Religion decreed, and for excellent reasons, that if a person had a deforming, infective or disfiguring disease he should be separated from the rest of his fellowmen. The best illustration of this is seen in the attitude of the Jews. All persons were ceremonially and permanently unclean if a blemish which proved to be permanent was found on their skin. Such people were put without the camp of Israel and condemned to isolation. In the early days when diseases had not been differentiated, persons with infective, mutilating or disfiguring diseases came under the same sentence—"Unclean, unclean, without the camp shall be their habitation." These diseases which resulted in separation from the community were all grouped under the one name, which in the Hebrew was called—"Zarath". When the Old Testament scriptures were translated this word unfortunately was rendered "Leprosy". Consequently there arose a fear and horror of the disease which was almost entirely unjustified and led to social implications which resulted in untold suffering in the name of hygiene. This attitude was not confined to the Jewish race, for there is hardly a people which have had leprosy in their midst for centuries that do not practise, wittingly or unwittingly, mental and, at times, physical cruelty on the unfortunate sufferer from leprosy. One only needs to refer to that detested word by which the sufferer is known—"LEPER"—to realise the full force of this statement. Some of us

for many years have avoided the use of that word, for it implies an insult to those whom we consider our friends and whom to serve is a rare privilege granted only to a few. Recently, however, this word has been banned by international consent and I trust that the word "LEPER" will speedily disappear, not only from our lay vocabulary but also from medical parlance, as surely as the words "consumptive" and "lunatic" have fallen into disuse in connection with tuberculosis and mental ill health. Leprosy being one of the earliest diseases known to man has come under condemnation in many faiths, not only because of its antiquity but because its insidious onset, its progressiveness and its final mutilation, combined with the fact that the patient seldom dies of the disease, has struck fear into the heart of man.

This, then, is the background against which we have to consider our subject of to-day. As a result of the researches and pioneer work of many in the past, certain fundamental facts have been elucidated and the knowledge of these should help to dispel fear and engender a more reasonable attitude towards the disease and towards those who suffer from leprosy. I will enumerate the main facts which are now known:—

1. All leprosy is not infective—probably only about 20% of all the cases in India are capable of transmitting the infection to healthy persons, particularly children. If a person is not infective, be he ever so mutilated, he cannot pass the disease on to another.

2. Leprosy is not a hereditary disease. There is no such thing as a leprosy taint.

3. Leprosy is acquired most frequently in childhood by constant contact with an infective or open case. Adults are, generally speaking, non-susceptible to the disease. Even in the closest relationship of life, that of marriage, only in about 5% of instances will the healthy partner acquire the disease.

4. Many children recover spontaneously from leprosy before adult life is reached—i.e. in only a proportion of cases does the disease progress. It is the doctor's task not only to diagnose leprosy but to give some estimate as to whether the person—be he child or adult—is likely to progress to the more advanced stages of the disease.

5. The mutilations and deformities which are frequently seen are signs that the body is overcoming the disease and in its grim fight with the invader has caused damage to vital structures such as nerves and, through nerves, to muscles. I would remind you that the tissues of the body are no strangers to a "scorched earth policy".

In the light, therefore, of the above facts, let us consider the modern developments of leprosy from the following points of view and relate our discussion to the social implications of the problems which arise:—

- A. Advances in our knowledge of prevention.
- B. Advances in our knowledge of physiotherapy and orthopaedic surgery in relation to leprosy.
- C. Advances in our knowledge of therapy.
- D. Social implications and duties in relation to the above advances.

A. Advances in our knowledge of prevention.

I place this in the forefront because the fact remains that even with the advances in therapy, our treatment is not so sure of effecting a "cure" within so short a time that precautions as to infecting others can be given up in their entirety. There is much speculation as to the method by which leprosy is conveyed from the infected person to the healthy, but all our investigations indicate that normally the only factors that really matter in the spread of the disease are (i) age, (ii) infective case and (iii) con-

tact with healthy persons. There are other factors of subsidiary significance, but to mention them only detracts from the immeasurably more important part the above factors play in the acquirement of leprosy and unnecessarily complicates the preventive picture.

If, then, the aim is to prevent infected people from coming into contact with healthy persons, particularly children, why not forcibly isolate every infective case? Compulsory isolation is impossible of enforcing in India—(i) Because early infective leprosy is easy to hide and by the time a case is discovered infection has already taken place. (ii) It is inhuman to isolate a person for life and make no provision for his family. It is a policy impossible of adoption and unreasonable in execution to separate a person for years from contact with the outside world, and it is an inhumanity which is self-condemnatory. The only justification for such a policy is when there are so few known infective cases of leprosy that it would be possible to isolate every case—then there would be some reason for compulsorily isolating such persons, provided the families are cared for by a State subsidy and the patients are discharged as soon as possible after they are declared non-infective. (iii) Compulsory segregation is costly and results in expenditure of money on a disease which is out of all proportion to its importance as a public health problem. Nevertheless, because leprosy is a communicable disease under certain conditions, it is necessary for some measure of isolation to be adopted if there is to be any hope of controlling leprosy within a measurable period of time. Segregation must, however, be only partial. Evidence of a fairly conclusive nature is forthcoming to show that by preventing night contact of infective cases with healthy people, particularly children, there is a reasonable hope of controlling leprosy in a village community.

Details from the Leprosy Preventive Unit some 20 miles from Chingleput support this. The social implication of this discovery is obvious. If, in addition to spending effort and time on trying to persuade Government to take the beggar case of leprosy off the streets of Bombay, energy was directed towards the education of the public in the modern preventive approach to the problem of leprosy, we should be nearer the solution of this problem. If the Bombay Presidency Women's Council persuaded women to preach—in season and out of season—the following simple principles, a great advance towards the control of leprosy would be made in the State:—

(i) If a person has leprosy it is essential to find out whether he is infective or not.

(ii) If he is shown to be infective, the patient should strictly observe the following precautions:—

(a) Keep apart from children—this is a self-discipline that every infective case must learn.

(b) Keep all personal utensils apart—sleeping, washing, eating.

(c) Sleep apart from the family and in a separate room.

In villages in India these conditions can be achieved by erecting separate huts outside the village linked up with a treatment centre where there is a resident doctor to care for the cases. Propaganda is then undertaken to persuade the infective case to sleep apart from his family. As has been stated, this method is already proving successful, for in the villages in the Chingleput district where there is a night segregation unit the incidence of leprosy has very markedly diminished over the past ten years; whereas in another village, where nothing has been done and the population is relatively static, the increase in the disease is now $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that of ten years ago! In towns, night segregation is much more difficult, but if friend-

ship leagues were formed and the problem of leprosy brought out into the healthy light of day, the social welfare and voluntary worker, by befriending the household in which there is leprosy, could do an inestimable service in hastening the day when leprosy was controlled. It would then only be a matter of time before it was finally eliminated.

B. Advances in our knowledge of Physiotherapy and Orthopaedic Surgery in relation to leprosy.

To-day, when there is so much written about the "cure" of leprosy and so much expectation abroad concerning the new Sulphone therapy, I must remind my audience that to raise hopes with Sulphone therapy when there is irretrievable nerve damage is a refinement of mental torture which a physician can unconsciously inflict on his patient in his over-anxiety to give him the latest remedy. Let me also remind you that only a comparatively small proportion, taking the whole leprosy population, can benefit by Sulphone therapy. In the first place, sulphones are the drug of choice in the lepromatous (infective) cases of leprosy and over 80% of all cases in this country have that type of leprosy which tends to deform and mutilate and may not be infectious. Further, of the infectious cases a large proportion show nerve damage which will ultimately result in gross deformity. This does not respond to specific therapy and will only yield to intelligent physiotherapeutic and orthopaedic measures.

During the last two years intensive study of the orthopaedic aspects of leprosy has been undertaken both at the Government Lady Willingdon Leprosy Sanatorium, Chingleput and at the Christian Medical College, Vellore. These studies are opening up an entirely new approach to the leprosy problem and give hope that those who show early deformity can be relieved and those

who have advanced deformity can be so treated that they can regain function of their limbs to a large extent. I believe that through the excellent work of the ladies of Bombay much attention is now being given to physiotherapy and occupational therapy. If there is available a trained physiotherapist who could be spared to work in the field of leprosy, I am certain that she would find a sphere of interest which would not only lead to original discoveries but would bring as great, if not greater relief from suffering than that brought about by the Sulphone drugs. I myself would be happy to give such a person facilities to do her work so that after working under the visiting Orthopaedic Surgeon at Chingleput she could return and bring relief, healing and peace of mind to the many sufferers in this State who have lost all hope—for they have found that the new drugs can benefit the active and infective cases very greatly, but make not one iota of difference to those who have deformities or who are threatened with paralysis. Here lies a challenge to all those of goodwill, for to relieve this suffering is to take a mighty burden off a group of persons who are indeed in the valley of despair.

C. Advances in our knowledge of therapy.

All who are familiar with the history of leprosy are aware that almost every year some outstanding claim is made for this or that drug in the treatment of leprosy. Unfortunately, if enough publicity is given to such claims the news travels round the world and great hopes are raised, all too frequently to be shattered in a few years in the light of further experience. The Chaulmoogra, or more correctly Hydnocarpus treatment of leprosy was rediscovered and popularised some thirty years ago and still remains, if applied adequately and effectively, despite adverse criticism, the treatment of choice in a large number of cases. It is true, however, to state that the proper administration of the

hydnocarpus preparations involves painful injections. The results frequently are uncertain and the relapse rate too high to give the physician any real peace of mind. In view of this fact and because of recent statements of the astounding efficacy of a drug named Diamino-diphenylsulphone, it might be well to attempt to evaluate the claims of this new treatment, for to those who long for relief from the bondage of this disease a new cure comes as a ray of hope into the darkness of their night.

I cannot at the time at my disposal include a critical appraisal of the Hydnocarpus (*Chaulmoogra*) therapy, but it should be emphasised that until more knowledge of the new Sulphone drug—using that name to cover the parent substance Diamino-diphenylsulphone as well as derivatives such as Promin, Diasone, Sulphetrone etc.—is acquired and until these drugs are cheaper hydnocarpus therapy, adequately applied and intensively given, cannot be discarded for many types of leprosy.

The history of the new drug for leprosy goes back some forty or more years. In the year 1908 a new substance was discovered by the Germans which was a bi-product of the dye industry and was named Diamino-diphenylsulphone. This substance caused no interest until about thirty years later when chemists and bacteriologists renewed their search for drugs which would kill bacilli in the system and the science of chemo-therapy began to pass from its infancy to full adult life. British workers discovered in 1937 that Diamino-diphenylsulphone had the power of killing septic organisms. This discovery was made before the Sulphonamides had been isolated. Unfortunately, when this drug was used, the earlier workers found that it caused such serious toxic effects that it had to be discarded. Because of the extraordinary power Diamino-diphenylsulphone (DDS for short) had to kill disease-produc-

ing bacilli, it was natural that the attention of research workers should turn to tuberculosis—that other great scourge of mankind. An American pharmaceutical firm manufactured the first derivative of DDS which was capable of injection without serious toxic effects and reports were soon published of the efficacy of this substance in arresting the progress of tuberculosis in animals. Because of the similarity of the two diseases—leprosy and tuberculosis—it was not long before this new drug was tried out in leprosy. It was found that the drug had a very marked effect on advanced leprosy, especially in the nodular variety. As a result of dramatic improvement, articles began to appear in the medical press and the news was taken up by the lay press. These reports speedily gave rise to the conviction that at long last leprosy could be certainly cured by these new and powerful remedies.

In evaluating the results of treatment it is necessary to define the basis upon which a cure is judged. In this connection it must be pointed out that certain types of leprosy, as already indicated, show a great tendency to spontaneous healing and therefore in judging the value of a cure, these cases, and cases in which it is difficult or impossible to assess results, must be rigidly excluded from any reports of "cure" in leprosy. The criteria for deciding that a drug is effective in leprosy should be as follows:—

- (i) The drug must render the patient non-infective within a reasonable period of time (2-5 years) and the patient should be free from relapse over at least a five-year period.
- (ii) The drug must be (a) relatively cheap, (b) non-toxic and (c) easy of administration.

In the light of the above tests, Sulphone therapy can be reviewed.

(i) It is true that the Sulphone preparations—be they Promin, Sulphetrone, Diasone

or the parent substance DDS—will render a considerable proportion of cases negative within a 2-5 year period. The exact percentage is still unknown, but it is very much higher than with the older *Hydnocarpus* preparations. It should be mentioned that when the "Sulphones" are administered, a significant number of cases pass through bouts of reaction, sometimes severe, before improvement definitely sets in. The remarkable fact appears that in comparison with the standard *Hydnocarpus* treatment, the later stages of the disease (in the infective form) may respond to Sulphone drugs better than the earlier cases. Evidence at the Government Lady Willingdon Leprosy Sanatorium, Chingleput, shows that in the early stages *Hydnocarpus* therapy, properly applied, is as effective as Sulphone therapy. *Hydnocarpus* therapy, however, is more painful and more tedious to administer. In the later stages of the disease the "Sulphones" have a remarkable effect in clearing up signs of leprosy, but unfortunately, while a patient may look very much better, the bacilli in the skin take a long time to disappear—so long in some cases that one speculates as to whether this will ever take place. While, therefore, the Sulphones may be curative in a considerable proportion of cases, in others they may be suppressive and never render the patient free from infection. Whether relapses occur on any large scale is yet unknown, but so far no cases of relapse have yet been reported in patients rendered negative by Sulphon therapy.

(ii) If a drug is to be universally used in the treatment of leprosy it must be:—

(a) *Relatively cheap*. Apart from oral administration of the parent substance DDS, all Sulphone drugs given by mouth are excessively expensive, costing from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 to treat one patient for one year. The most convenient form, from the point of view of expense, is an aqueous solution

of one of the Sulphone derivatives. The work in Madras has demonstrated that the cost in this way has been reduced to Rs. 30/- per annum per case. The only reason why this drug is not used more extensively is because the present policy of restriction of imports make it impossible to import sufficient quantities into the country.

(b) *Non-toxic*. Judged by this criteria, DDS cannot be considered at present as the most suitable Sulphone to administer. It is true that there is a much smaller tendency to produce serious toxic results if dosages of less than 1.5 grammes a week are given. Injections of DDS suspended in an oily medium are being given in Chingleput, but the preparation of this is tedious and steps must be taken to ensure that the right dosage is administered. Recent reports have indicated that DDS given by mouth in relatively small dosages is largely free from toxicity, but to organise treatment on a large scale, based on tablets given daily, is an obvious difficulty because if patients do not follow instructions implicitly dangerous complications may arise. Experiments are being undertaken to see whether some of these defects can be remedied, but until this obvious drawback is overcome DDS is considered unsafe except when given under strictly controlled conditions.

(c) *Ease of administration*. While oily emulsions or suspensions of the Sulphone preparations are in many ways to be preferred, until the mechanical difficulty of injecting the relatively large quantities needed for effective therapeutic action is overcome, these also are not possible to use on a large scale.

It will be seen, therefore, that while considerable advance has been made in Sulphone therapy, the time has not yet come to state that this or that Sulphone prepara-

tion is the drug of choice. It may be said that therapeutic research is being done in India under strictly controlled conditions and is not behind that of other countries. If import restrictions were eased it would be possible to recommend a safe and reasonably effective Sulphone preparation for general use, but so long as supplies are limited as a result of currency difficulties, widespread publicity will only raise hopes which are not possible of fulfilment.

Research workers in India are constantly working at the therapeutic problem of leprosy, and all drugs—be they Western or Eastern in origin—which give the slightest hope of success are tried. It is therefore encouraging to know that workers in India are in no way behind their colleagues in research in the modern therapy of leprosy and it is sincerely hoped that ere long the therapeutic battle against this age-long disease will have been won.

DR. GARDNER MURPHY AT THE INSTITUTE

Dr. Gardner Murphy,* UNESCO Consultant on the study of Group Tensions, undertaken by the Government of India, was on a visit to Bombay in September 1950. As the Tata Institute of Social Sciences is actively co-operating in the project, he was invited to address its students and staff on "The Problem of Social Integration". Dr. Murphy readily agreed and visited the Institute on Monday, September 11, 1950.

In the course of his address, Dr. Murphy observed that, in the beginning, all life was undifferentiated and formless. It was in a diffused or global state. This was followed by friction or collision, causing differentiation. In this stage started the discrimination of sex, age, skills. When these differentiated parts became interrelated, there emerged the third stage of integration in the human body, in the society and in the nation. Therefore, integration without differentiation was bound to fail. Hence no attempt should be made at integration in the global or undifferentiated state.

Continuing his main thesis, Dr. Murphy said that all integration was not necessarily good, just as all differentiation was not necessarily bad. Respect for and treatment of men must be personalistic. Each individual has a definite personality and that has to be respected. In the United States, there is integration going on of different industrial units. But this is being achieved for purposes of efficient economic exploitation, which is not a healthy feature or development. Dr. Murphy felt that, if this integration had instead been directed towards the goal of achieving co-operation, it would be accomplishing more healthy social results.

If there is to be integration of human family, it will not come by saying that there should be inter-racial or international mix-up. This should be attained by a gradual *democratising* process. Frank recognition of differences and welcoming contribution by different or dissentient elements without enforced leadership from above is likely to bring about better results for humanity.

*Dr. Gardner Murphy, an internationally reputed psychologist, is Professor and Chairman of the Department of Psychology in the City College, New York (where nearly 35,000 students receive their education). In 1938, he was elected President of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, and in 1943, of the American Psychological Association. Among the books he has written, the most well-known are: *A Historical introduction to Modern Psychology*, *Experimental Social Psychology* (with T. M. Newcomb), *General Psychology*, *Public Opinion and the Individual* (with R. Likart), *Personality and Human Nature and Enduring Peace*.

Before joining the City College, Dr. Murphy taught in the Harvard, Yale and Columbia Universities. He was a recipient of the Butler Medal of Columbia University.

In the West, education is being used for promoting competitive spirit in the mind of man. This is very undesirable as it has been the root cause of so much social destruction in the recent past. Education should, on the other hand, become a medium for fostering a co-operative spirit in man. Dr. Murphy, in conclusion, expressed the hope that India would so model her educational system as not to promote the destructive spirit of competition but to create and encourage a co-operative sense among her citizens.

At the end, there was a discussion in which both students and staff took part.

Dr. J. M. Kumarappa, Director of the Institute, was in the Chair.

On Wednesday, 13th September 1950 at 6 p.m., the Trustees, Members of the Governing Board and Faculty of the Institute gave a reception at the Taj Mahal Hotel, in honour of Dr. Murphy, when there was an informal discussion among those present on various problems.

DR. P. H. PRABHU

Dr. Pandharinath Prabhu who was Honorary Reader with us since February last has now joined the Faculty as Reader in Industrial Psychology and Research Methods as from June 1950. Dr. Prabhu took his B. A. Hons. with Mental and Moral Philosophy from the University of Bombay in 1930, LL.B. in 1933, and Ph. D. in 1937 with a thesis on the Psychology of Hindu Social Institutions from the same University. He was a Research Scholar and later Research Fellow in the University. Dr. Prabhu's book on the Psychology of Hindu Social Institutions is very highly spoken of by the press and scholars in India and abroad. It is considered as a standard work on the subject and is used as a text book for M. A. in many Indian Universities. He has also published over twelve monographs and papers on socio-psychological subjects.

Since 1938, Dr. Prabhu has been teaching Psychology and Sociology in the University of Bombay. In 1939 he was selected by the Syndicate of the University of Bombay to officiate as University Lecturer in Sociology during the absence of the University Professor. He was also the Maha-

raja Sayaji Rao Lecturer for 1942, at the invitation of Baroda Government.

Three years ago, Dr. Prabhu was selected by the Overseas Scholarship Committee of the Government (Public Service Commission jointly with a Committee of Experts) to hold their Foreign scholarship for two years for advanced studies in Applied Psychology and Research Techniques, and was sent to U.S.A., and to Cambridge (England) and France. While in the U.S.A., he was, in recognition of his scholastic achievement, awarded the status of an Honorary Visiting Scholar in Columbia University and in the University of Pennsylvania (by invitation) in their Departments of Psychology, and of an Honorary Fellow in the University of Minnesota. He worked under Professors Gardner Murphy, T. M. Nevicomb, Rensis Likert, D. Katz, M. S. Viteles, and Sir Frederick Bartlett. He was elected an Associate of the American Psychological Association, an "Active" Member (i.e. Class I) of the American Sociological Society, and an "Active" member of the International Congress of Psychotechnology.

FAMILY WELFARE AGENCY, BOMBAY

Some time ago, a few enthusiastic professional social workers met to discuss the feasibility of starting a Family Welfare Agency in Bombay. It was felt that in a big city like Bombay, family problems were acute and complicated due to various reasons. It was thought that social scientists should tackle the problem of family living, considering family life as the cornerstone of a good society. Steps were taken in this direction and a preliminary Committee was formed to do the spade work.

With the financial help of the N.M. Wadia Charities and the American Woman's Club, the Agency was brought into being on 1st May 1950, and Miss Usha Rani Kanai, a graduate of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, was appointed Family Case Worker. Lady Jehangir and Dr. K. S. Mhaskar of the Bombay Mothers and Children's Welfare Society, kindly agreed to allow the Agency to have its office at their Society's premises at Delisle Road, Bombay. Recently the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust sanctioned a munificent donation of Rs. 3,000/- towards the Agency which has greatly facilitated its work.

The Agency acts as a counselling body to the public. In most cases an individual in a family or the family as the unit is able to handle adequately certain problems. But there are those which cannot be dealt with

satisfactorily without some assistance. They may be so overwhelmed by special problems that they cannot think through and arrive at an adequate solution. It is in such cases that the need for a Family Welfare Agency is felt. Sometimes financial and material assistance is also needed along with the skilled counsel. The Agency will, we hope, be in coming years of immense help in counselling on problems of family relationships, marital adjustments, financial and vocational planning, or for working out parent-child or employer-employee relationship and so forth.

Though it is true that, in a city like Bombay, there are scores of urgent and pressing social problems, yet the importance of the need for a Family Welfare Agency cannot be minimised. The problem of family welfare is very vital to our society. When problems are treated at the family level, many of their offshoots like juvenile delinquency, adult crime, alcoholism, unmarried motherhood, are tackled indirectly.

The Tata Institute of Social Sciences has a specialisation course in Family and Child Welfare and the Family Welfare Agency which is worked on modern lines will provide a good field work centre for practical training in this branch of social work.

ALUMNI NEWS.

New Executive Committee:—At this year's Annual General Meeting of the Alumni Association, Dr. Miss Perin Vakharia was elected President. Subsequently, the following persons were elected as office-bearers:—

T. L. Kochavara *Vice President*

K. A. Zackariah *Treasurer*

Miss Freny Gandhi }
Miss S. Bhatia } *Joint Secretaries*

Other members of the Executive Committee are Miss S. F. Dastur, Mrs. R. Shroff, Miss Sheroo Mehta, N. F. Kaikobad and S. D. Gokhale. Mrs. Indira Renu was co-opted on the Committee for the purpose of conducting the study circle on child welfare.

The first task of the Committee is to keep an up-to-date list of names and addresses of all the alumni. It is found that some of them are forgotten and a few prefer to

remain unknown. So, the alumni are requested to assist the Committee in this matter. A campaign for collecting membership fees has already been undertaken by Miss Dastur and others.

As it is felt there is a need for helping some of the alumni in securing suitable jobs, the Executive Committee is exploring the possibility of starting an employment bureau in collaboration with the Institute. Some preliminary work has already been done in this connection.

Resignation of the President:—The President tendered her resignation within a few months after her election to this high office, as she was required to leave Bombay to take up the post of the Head of the Baroda School of Social Work, M. S. University, Baroda. However, Miss Vakharia is keeping in touch with the activities of the Association. The Vice-President, Mr. Kochavara, is now carrying on the duties of the President.

United Nations Fellows:—John Barnabas, Assistant Secretary, Prohibition Board, Bombay, is observing Public Recreational Systems and Welfare Administration in the U. S. A.

2. P. R. Rao, Governor, Borstal School, Dharwar, (Bombay), left for the U. S. A. for observation study in the field of rehabilitation of offenders.

3. K. Paul, Field Work Supervisor, Delhi School of Social Work, is observing field work arrangements and supervision in the American Schools of Social Work.

4. Mr. T. Edward has left for Europe for observation study of labour conditions on the continent.

5. Miss Kokila Doraswamy has left for Europe to observe Child Welfare arrangements on the continent.

Picnic:—In the month of April, a picnic was arranged at Manori Island, when several

alumni and some of the staff members of the Institute participated. Swimming was one of the most important items on the programme.

Farewell Party:—B. Chatterji, Executive Secretary, Indian Conference of Social Work, was given a send-off by the Alumni Association in the month of June, prior to his departure for Paris to represent the Conference at the International Conference of Social Work.

Social:—In the month of August, we had arranged a social to welcome the new batch of students of the Institute. The other students and the staff also were invited. It was a gay function enjoyed by one and all. Sorry for those who missed it.

Rest of the News:—Our Treasurer has been elected as one of the members of the Board of Directors of the Y. M. C. A.

Miss Batliwala has received her Master's degree in Social Work from Smith College in the U. S. A.

Miss S. F. Dastur and Mr. V. R. Bakhtavatsalam left for England in September for higher studies in Social Work.

Late Miss P. F. Ginwala:—A condolence meeting in memory of late Miss Ginwala was held in the first week of September at the Y. M. C. A. Some of the alumni who had gathered on the occasion paid tribute to the selfless and outstanding work done by Miss Ginwala in her home town of Broach.

ANNOUNCEMENT

The Tenth Convocation of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Andheri, Bombay, will be held on 3rd December, 1950 at 5.30 p.m. at the Institute's premises. The Hon'ble Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Minister for Health, Government of India, has kindly consented to deliver the address. Dr. John Matthai, a Trustee of the Institute, will preside on the occasion,

TATA INSTITUTE NOTES

Class of 1950-52

1. el Arculli (Mrs.) V. L.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1942
Poona, Bombay State.
2. Birjay, R. M.
B. A., Mysore University, 1949
Bangalore, Mysore State.
3. Calla, V. K.
B. A., Agra University, 1946
LL. B., Nagpur University, 1948
Jodhpur, Rajasthan State.
4. Deshpande, S. P.,
B. Sc., Nagpur University, 1942
M. Sc., " " 1944
Buldana, Madhya Pradesh.
5. Dube, D.,
B. Com., Rajputana University 1948
M. A., Agra University, 1950
Harsud, Madhya Pradesh.
6. Gangrade, K. D.,
B. Com., Agra University, 1948
M. A. " " 1950
Indore, Madhyabharat.
7. Govind (Miss) C.,
B. A., Allahabad University, 1948
M. A., " " 1950
Gorakhpur, Uttar Pradesh.
8. Hathi (Miss) A. R.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1950
Bombay City.
9. Iraqi, F. R.,
B. A., Agra University, 1950
Azamgarh, Uttar Pradesh.
10. Iyer (Miss) N. K. M.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1950
Bombay City.
11. Jalnawalla (Miss) R. J.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1950
Bombay City.
12. Kamra, M.,
B. A., Punjab University, 1946
Bombay City.
13. Karunakaran, T. K.,
B. A., Travancore University, 1949
Trivandrum, Travancore-Cochin State.
14. Kittur (Miss) P. N.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1941
B. T., " " 1944
Bombay City.
15. Krishnarao, G. P.,
B. Sc., Mysore University, 1948
Holenarasipur, Mysore State.
16. Krishnaswami (Mrs.) S. P.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1950
Bombay City.
17. Nair, P. G.,
B. Sc., Travancore University, 1944
Kayamkulam, Travancore-Cochin State.
18. Padaliya, G. L.,
B. A., Bombay University, 1940
Paneli Moti, Saurashtra.
19. Patrudu, P. V. S.,
B. A., Andhra University, 1946
Vizagapatam, Madras State.
20. Pillai, M. A.,
B. A., Allahabad University, 1948
Akola, Vindhya Pradesh.
21. Rai (Miss) S.,
B. A., Punjab University, 1949
Amritsar, E. Punjab.
22. Rawat, M. S.,
B. A., Agra University, 1950
Garhwal, Uttar Pradesh.
23. Sahoo, S.,
B. A. (Hons.) Utkal University, 1949
Sambalpur, Orissa State.
24. Sivaraj, C. M.,
B. A., Nagpur University, 1946
Secunderabad, Hyderabad State.
25. Srivastava (Miss) P.,
B. A., Agra University, 1949
Kanpur, Uttar Pradesh.

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| <p>26. Sultana (Miss) A.,
 B. A., Osmania University, 1948
 <i>Aurangabad, Hyderabad State.</i></p> <p>27. Surti (Miss) T. E.,
 B. A., Bombay University, 1944
 <i>Bombay City.</i></p> <p>28. Tungare, S. G.,
 B. A., Bombay University, 1946
 M. A., „ „ , 1949
 <i>Kalyan, Bombay State.</i></p> | <p>29. Udani (Miss) N. A.,
 B. A., Bombay University, 1945
 M. A., „ „ , 1949
 <i>Rajkot, Saurashtra.</i></p> <p>30. Upadhyaya (Miss) S. C.,
 B. A., Bombay University, 1950
 <i>Sisodra, Bombay State.</i></p> <p>31. Vashi, T. B.,
 B. A., (Hons.), Poona University, 1949
 <i>Surat, Bombay State.</i></p> |
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BOOK REVIEWS

Among the Gonds of Adilabad by P. Sethumadhava Rao. (Jai Hind Printing Press, Narayanguda, Hyderabad (Deccan), pp. 94. Rs. 2-8-0.)

Amongst the many problems brought to the fore by the advent of Freedom is the problem of aborigines. India has nearly 25 million aborigines living in their well organised communities in the central belt from Arravalli to Assam. Compared to the needs of the problem India has few Anthropologists who have done extensive field research which can throw adequate light on the life and customs of these people who have already crossed the threshold of primitivism and who are being assimilated into the large life and culture of India.

Mr. P. Sethumadhava Rao of the Allahabad University who is now in the Hyderabad administration has brought out a very useful study of the Gonds of Adilabad. The

Gonds, before the advent of the Rajputs, were one of the most important ruling tribes of Central India. Mr. Rao's study of social life amongst the Gonds is interesting. He has collected the few evidences of history of the Gonds for nearly a thousand years. For the purpose of his research Mr. Rao has selected a few important ethnic data for study and he throws some light on the names of persons and villages amongst the Gonds, the work of the Gond Bards called Pradhans and some of the myths and legends of Gondavans. Coming to present times Mr. Rao studies the difficult land problems of the Gonds and discusses the recent methods of aboriginal rehabilitation.

This small book is a useful source of information on some aspects of tribal life for those who are interested in the aboriginal problem.

B. H. M.

White Collar Crime by Sutherland, Edwin H. (New York, The Dryden Press, 1949.)

Prof. Sutherland's study presents ample evidence that persons of the upper socio-economic class commit serious crimes. But his efforts to include these crimes within the scope of criminal behaviour and to present hypotheses that may explain all criminal behaviour have not produced positive results. He has, however, devoted considerable attention to prove that white collar crimes cannot be explained in terms of personal and social pathologies and to apply the hypotheses of differential association and social disorganisation to white collar crimes.

"Why" and not "How":—Eight years have now passed since the first complete portrayal of white collar crime appeared

in the pages of the American Sociological Review in the form of an article by Prof. Sutherland. Tannenbaum, Barnes and Teeters, Taft and a few others have pointed out again and again that our traditional views about crime and its sociological and psychological causes are bound to be biased so long as white collar crime is excluded from the picture. Efforts have been made to point out that white collar crimes are inflicting greater damage to society than crimes committed by members of the lower economic class. But all these efforts have only proved just "how" white collar crimes are committed and not "why" people commit crimes—both white collar and other. Explanation of the manner in which people come to know of and practise the techniques of white collar crime does not take us nearer its genesis.

Differential Implementation:—The concept of differential implementation sounds more like a modified form of the benefit of clergy. Perhaps, we may be able to explain this change from the benefit of clergy to the modern differential implementation if we take into consideration the declining status of ecclesiastical groups as against the increasing and significant role played by professional and business groups in modern society who possess not only social prestige but also political influence.

When we look into the history of the mitigation of punishment, we find a progressive softening of our attitude towards the ordinary criminal and also a progressive but feeble stiffening of our attitude towards the white collar criminal. We are not interested in punishing the white collar criminal but we are definitely interested in the treatment of the problem presented by him. This can be accomplished best by not subjecting him to punitive measures. The solution of the crime problem will be more difficult if we lower the status of the white collar criminal to that of the ordinary criminal. On the other hand, there is sufficient reason to believe that the crime problem can be tackled better if we raise the status of the ordinary criminal to that of the white collar criminal. The present trend in the field of criminal justice and correctional administration indicates that such differences may disappear in course of time.

Legal history and white collar crime.—Is it possible to bring into operation effective and appropriate legal machinery to deal with this type of anti-social behaviour? Is it possible to overcome the resistance offered by vested interests to prevent the effective enforcement of law?

Legislators have not always grasped sufficiently the danger involved in this type of offense. Even today legal definitions of white collar crime have not reached full

maturity. The social and economic philosophy of the *laissez faire* age have retarded its evolution, but we need not go far back into legal history to find instances where recourse to civil action was suggested as a remedy to damage resulting from private cheating.

It is true that laws always get out of date and do not satisfy the needs of the times. They do not closely follow changes in institutions. The white collar criminal is taking advantage of this lag and he has always remained ahead of the law maker by a respectable distance. On the other hand, the existence of white collar crime may be an index of the failure of society to stamp out such practices by legal methods.

In this connection, it is worthwhile to consider the problem presented by professional advisors such as lawyers and accountants who receive only their usual fees but without whose help white collar crimes would not have been committed.

Attitude of society:—The future of the crime problem is dependent on the attitude of the society towards white collar crime. Apart from the higher financial losses involved, white collar crimes inflict great damage on public morale. Whenever a traditional form of crime threatened society, the community used to mobilise under the leadership of men of the upper socio-economic class. But in chalking out an effective plan to fight white collar crime, leadership is conspicuous by its absence. Members of the upper classes are reluctant to attack their own friends even if the former have nothing to do with white collar crimes.

Effective administration of justice depends upon the basic social structure within which it operates, for law cannot function without the support of a vital part of the community. It is for society to decide which all "values" it should uphold and how these "values"

should be protected. Legal machinery designed to deal with large scale social and economic issues cannot be a vital force if it is not supported by society.

What is the remedy? The values and successes of a study in the field of criminology may be judged in terms of the contribution it makes to the diagnosis, treatment and control of criminal behaviour. It is true that motives for illegal personal gain too often find confirmation in practices of some persons of accepted social position. It is also true that white collar criminals, as a rule, are not amenable to treatment now available in our correctional institutions.

To state differently, our institutions are not equipped to deal with the white collar criminal who is not likely to co-operate with treatment measures. We can justify the institutionalisation of the white collar criminal only in terms of protective custody and not treatment. Prof. Sutherland should have offered suggestions in this area as to how to deal with the white collar criminal. We are aware of the problem for too long a period. The time has come to ask for remedies. Otherwise, new concepts will only help in reforming the criminologist and not the criminal.

J. J. Panakal.

Crime and the Mind, An Outline of Psychiatric Criminology by Bromberg, Walter (J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1948.)

On the basis of his intimate professional contact with criminal offenders which has provided ample clinical data, Dr. Bromberg has built up this dissertation on the dynamics of antisocial behaviour.

Change in social attitudes towards the criminal:—Prior to the elaboration of the doctrine of determinism, criminal offenders were exposed to every manner of retributive treatment proceeding from the largely discredited theory that people are creatures of free will. The concept of complete free will and its punitive corollary have been repudiated and we are beginning to accept that punishment for its own sake arranged to fit the crime serves no other useful purpose than to provide a convenient outlet for man's instinctual aggressive impulses in respect to his non-conforming fellowmen.

Psychiatry in courts of law:—"What mental hygiene has done in preparing a psychological environment for the understanding and treatment of the mentally ill,

psychiatry can do for the criminal," says Dr. Bromberg. Psychiatry should play a greater contributory role in the guilt finding function of treatment processes. The archaic rule that only those offenders are deemed legally not responsible for their criminal behaviour who are unaware of the "nature and quality" of their acts, or who cannot distinguish between "right and wrong" should be abolished.

Psychiatry has long since abandoned the notion that responsibility for behaviour rests solely upon one's capacity to understand but upon the ability to act upon one's understanding, and this ability is influenced considerably by experience. Yet, the right-and-wrong test has given rise to legal absurdities that collide with scientific truth. "That cannot be responsibility in fact which is lack of responsibility in science. That cannot be health in law which is not health in science." Dr. Bromberg's arguments point the way towards the formulation of programmes which can bring the laws in closer apposition with scientific knowledge of the individual and toward the goal of treatment for illness.

Freudian interpretation:—Dr. Bromberg's book is designed essentially for the psychiatrically oriented reader. He presents throughout a strictly Freudian set of interpretations although he has avoided very involved psychoanalytical theoretical considerations. Theoretical aspects are sprinkled throughout the book in connection with case histories which illustrate the particular dynamics involved. Though Dr. Bromberg aspires for a science of criminal psychiatry and has even organised his book in such a way that it would make an excellent textbook in that field, his book for the present can only serve as a useful adjunct to studies in courses such as criminology, psychiatry, or clinical psychology.

Deterministic doctrine:—The book endorses the deterministic doctrine that most behaviour is influenced by childhood experiences. It also reveals that the same impulses toward anti-social behaviour which exists in the criminal also exist in law-abiding members of society. The main difference is this: The average offender is by his act expressing his internal conflicts in the form of anti-sociality, the average law abiding citizen may be repressing them, abetted by his sense of reality and life, experience both distorted in the offender.

One sided approach:—Dr. Bromberg believes that crimes are committed preponderantly by disturbed personalities. The major portion of his book is devoted to the phenomenology and dynamics of the

psychopathic personality, the relation of emotional immaturity to crime, the role of the neurotic acting out his impulses in criminality. He gives a full length picture of the psychopathic personality. Description of these types is easily switched to psychopathic alcoholics, addicts, swindlers, sex offenders, homosexuals, bigamists—all the end products of childhood deprivations or unresolved libidinal conflicts.

Dr. Bromberg says that the neurotic offender acts "in response to a solitary aberrant impulse." He struggles with his impulses, while "emotional deprivation and rejection very early influence the ego of the psychopath to cause an incomplete development of the conscience." It is difficult to understand the abovementioned distinction when we read it along with another statement made by Dr. Bromberg that "the chronic burglar who has consolidated his neurotic impulses into an antisocial personality is in fact a psychopathic individual."

Again, Dr. Bromberg maintains that the common underlying characteristic of burglary is passivity. "Burglary is a passive crime," but in its real psychological significance it "is a passive expression of fundamentally aggressive impulses." It is difficult to follow the reasoning when Dr. Bromberg further adds: "On the other hand, while robbery is a grossly aggressive act, deep feelings of inferiority and passivity are startlingly common among convicted robbers."

J. J. Panakal.

Probation and Re-education by Elizabeth R. Glever, (Routledge & Kegan Paul Limited.) pp. 292.

This book surpasses in its practical suggestions in the handling of delinquent persons. The author herself having worked as Probation Officer has often tried to relate her

own experience which makes the reading more realistic and instructive as well. Although the materials in the book are western having based on the conditions existing in England the methods suggested in re-educating probationers have a universal appeal. Moreover, the book is a helpful guide to all enthusiastic Probation Officers

who desire to improve their own techniques especially while dealing with difficult cases.

The author holds the view that probation is based on the free-will of the offender to be good and as such she deprecates any conditions that cannot be enforced are imposed by Courts on probationers. While discussing the duties of Probation Officers, the author lays emphasis on the fact that one cannot help irresponsible people to be responsible by depriving them of responsibility. It is true many Probation Officers ignore this aspect in their readjustment of offenders.

Continuing, the author remarks that very often Probation Officers do not make thorough preliminary enquiries. In fact, right diagnosis depended upon proper enquiry and sound treatment depended upon the diagnosis. Moreover, the unhealthy practice of "binding over" of the offenders by some Magistrates and then asking the Probation Officer to investigate is rightly pointed out by the author. Any failure of such cases is attributed to this inverted procedure of treatment before diagnosis. There is one chapter on "interviewing" which gives several practical hints particularly useful to Probation Officers.

The suggestions for planning treatment in delinquency cases are found exhaustive because a wide range of factors that enter into the life of delinquents are covered. In order to impress upon readers, the author has chosen the typical case of a young boy named Alastair to illustrate how a plan treatment could be made successful by using the assets of the client to best advantage and at the same time the obstacles may be met by helping to discover his own weakness and recognize it.

The warning to Probation Officers not to be quick in executing the plan for the simple reason that speed is fatal in probation is indeed a constructive suggestion. While

discussing material help for probationers, the author admits that it is necessary as a tonic in the early stages. But, she has pointed out the pitfalls of this type of help. Although material assistance is gratifying to the giver, it may be hateful to the receiver to think he is the object of pity or dependent upon some one richer. This fact is often overlooked by several social workers including Probation Officers.

The author has devoted one chapter on "interests" because it has been frequently observed that many delinquents have only vacant minds and purposeless leisure. Therefore, efforts should be made to develop creative interests and taste for healthy recreation. Similarly, interest in work is also an essential factor for a well adjusted life. In fact, re-education of probationers can be well accomplished by recovering their better qualities. Lack of friends is another serious gap in the life of many delinquent juveniles. That is perhaps the reason why the Court asks the Probation Officer to befriend this probationer during the period of supervision. But, the author from her own experience says that it is no easy task for Probation Officer to establish friendship with their probationers because the latter often suspect the former as agents of the court and police. Therefore, the Probation Officer should endeavour to stand this test and show himself to be a friend who really cares for his charge. Here lies the success of probation work. Another equally important factor is family affection which many delinquents often miss. They seldom experience emotional love towards anybody. In the words of the author, family life is the cradle of the finest emotions. Therefore, it is being recognised more and more that children should be kept as far as possible in their homes for emotional satisfaction unless the home situation is intolerable. However, there are some young

people who need either a foster home or institutional care to learn regular, disciplined life so that they will be fit enough to take up employment. This point needs to be stressed in our country where there are thousands of children at large, either as homeless or truants from their own homes without the contact of any social worker. Finally, the author concludes by saying that an ideal Probation Officer is a true friend to whom one can turn for under-

standing. In fact, worth of probation work should not be calculated merely by looking at its results, but its many possibilities should be taken into account. There is no doubt that probation work involves the re-education process of the individual and the Probation Officer works with the firm faith that people can be helped to mend their ways. It is this belief which inspires the whole probation system.

T. L. K.

REVIEW OF OFFICIAL STATISTICS.

(Publications of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India.)

1. *Indian Coffee Statistics, 1941-42 and 1942-43.* Twenty-third Issue, pp. 13, Tables 5, Price Rs. 1-2-0, Central Publications, New Delhi, 1949.
2. *Jute Statistics, 1939-40 and 1944-49,* Commodity Series, No. 2, April 1948.
3. *Indian Food Statistics,* August 1949.
4. *Estimates of Area and Yield of Principal Crops in Undivided India.*
5. *Abstract of Agricultural Statistics of India, 1936-37 to 1945-46.*
6. *Indian Agricultural Statistics. Summary Tables for Provinces : 1944-45 to 1946-47.* August 1949.
7. *Co-operative Farming, 1949.* Price As. 12.
8. *Crop Calendar,* September 1948.

The rate of advance of civilisation is limited not only by the amount of knowledge which exists, but by the lag in utilizing what knowledge is available. This time-lag is very serious in a number of fields. Partly it is due to poor instruments and technique for gathering and promptly passing on information to all concerned.

The growing inclination of contemporary society to scientific research demands a vast expansion of statistics and information services sponsored by Government agencies. In India there is a growing and more effective body of people who appreciate the fact-finding approach, and are accustomed to using statistics as an instrument for measuring how the economic and social machine is working.

Whether in the planning of national economy or in the measurement of social progress, the collection, interpretation and utilization of statistical data are considered important functions of the state. Data gathered in the course of central and local Government administration for their own immediate use or for organized business and trade, are still in a rudimentary state in India. Due to a survival of certain prejudices or dislike for anything new, official statistics have been a routine product, often incomplete and stale to be of any interest or use to the inquisitive public or the policy making statesmen.

Statistics for statistics' sake is just as undesirable as lack of statistics, because the dry-as-bones data can hardly convey the meaning intended unless flesh and blood are provided with brief explanatory notes and comments upon trends leading to predictions for the future. If Government

agencies in India are designed to educate the public and to make their information services more effective, they should aim at not only meeting their immediate requirements, but also foster better public relations as a means of smoother working and of getting services more intelligently used. In order to achieve this end, the stereotyped and routine official statistical returns should yield ground to more informational and lively publications for an accurate and timely appraisal of the economic problems confronting the nation today.

Moreover, official statistics need to be constantly overhauled with reference to the purpose they are supposed to serve in a changing socio-political setting. They cannot be used fairly and intelligently otherwise. Agricultural statistics have developed rapidly during the past two decades in India, but they still leave much to be desired. Where earlier efforts were doomed to failure, (viz. in the reclassification of area, measurement of average yield per acre by sampling, division of agricultural annuals and plantation perennials, etc.), sound recent proposals for the extension and improvement of statistics should lead to a practical advance. The 'interest' element which is wanting in official statistics is due to both lack of change in tabular presentation and inadequate interpretation of data, and not until the planning and execution of statistical surveys are done in keeping with modern needs and techniques can the Government information agencies be said to perform their functions effectively and systematically.

Here we intend to review certain statistical publications of the Ministry of Agriculture in order to bring out what is being done, which gaps have lately been filled and which continue yawning:—

1. *Indian Coffee Statistics*:—This is the twenty-third issue of the *Indian Coffee*

Statistics, hitherto brought out by the Department of Intelligence and Statistics, Calcutta, and now taken over by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics of the Ministry of Agriculture. Whilst the report is published in 1949, the abstract statements relating to area, yield, exports and employment of labour relate to the years 1941-42 and 1942-43. There can be no denying the fact that information contained in this 'annual' is of considerable value to coffee planters, exporters, and the government, but in 1950, when planning needs to be done five years hence, statistics relating to 1941-43 appear rather stale. That official statistical information lags behind private information is borne out by the fact that the United Planters Association of South India has already brought out this information up-to-date in their regular annual publication (*Planters' Year Book*). It is desirable that the twenty-fourth issue should contain data from 1943-44 to 1949-50 lest it should lose all but reference value. It will considerably enhance the value of this publication if comments were made on the fluctuations in area under coffee, volume of production and trade, briefly pointing out the factors responsible for such fluctuations. Further, it would be better if columns 9, 10, 11 are deleted from Table No. 3. (a) and 3 (b), and a separate table is devoted to persons employed, (daily average number of persons to area that has been plucked), and *per capita* production of cured coffee in different plantations. Thus, useful information will be obtained for the efficient management of labour on marginal plantations. Comparative data should also be made available, for instance, on average yield per acre of cured coffee in various coffee-producing countries, prices in important international coffee markets, and consumption. It is necessary that an explanatory note be given on the

progress of the coffee industry for careful planning in future.

2. *Jute Statistics*:—This is a highly informational publication on Jute statistics. The fact that totals for undivided India also show the estimated share of the Indian Union and Pakistan should prove this publication of considerable value to the producers of raw jute, manufacturers and exporters. However, since the information contained in this publication comes from the Ministry of Agriculture, the data should be specialized and restricted to the raw-material aspects of the jute industry, and information on such subjects as location of jute mill industry, weight of jute manufacturers, price of jute manufactures, need not appear in this brochure. A separate table showing the trend and volume of trade in raw jute between India and Pakistan, and an explanatory note on the effects of partition on India's jute strength, would have been an appreciable contribution.

3. *Indian Food Statistics*:—This brochure presents within a brief compass an integrated picture of the production, procurement, imports, distribution, rationing and prices of food grains in the Indian Union. An explanatory note on the procedure adopted and the assumptions involved in the preparation of the various statistical tables enhances the value of this publication both for students of agricultural statistics and businessmen. Since radical changes are likely in the collection and dissemination of statistical information regarding agricultural production in the *post*-partition period, it will be better if the scope of agricultural statistics contained in this brochure is extended. For example, tables 2-24 give the production of cereals and gram, returned by reporting areas and estimated for non-reporting areas. Food statistics should include besides cereals and gram other agricultural crops (annuals and seasonals)

also which contribute substantially to the food of the masses. Therefore, there is need for including production of pulses, edible oilseeds, peas and beans, potatoes, and other staple produce of market-gardening. The food complex of different climatic zones in India may be classified under three groups, viz., the wheat-milk-meat complex or the millets-pulses-potato complex, and the rice-vegetables-oilseeds complex, and without reference to these food-stuffs Indian food statistics gives an incomplete picture of India's resources.

It is not necessary to give estimated production of food stuffs separate for non-reporting areas—the estimated totals may be incorporated in table 2 alone. Instead of giving a triennial average in col. 2. table 2., a progressive average should now be used starting from 1947-48 to show the progress of cultivation in the post-partition period.

Tables Nos. 68-75 give world statistics, the four tables which give the production of each of the major cereals show (in col. 2) a quinquennial average for 1934 to 1938, followed by annual totals of production. To facilitate comparison, quinquennial average for 1939-1943 and 1944-48 should also have been given, together with annual production for 1947-48, 1948-49. While important producing countries have been listed, the estimated total production has not been given to give an idea of non-listed producers and to enable the reader to ascertain the actual share of each listed country in world's total production.

Finally, in view of the continuance of rationing and the need for planning for self-sufficiency, it will be highly useful to include a table showing quantity of food-stuffs net available for consumption (i.e. gross production, minus the overall allowance for wastage, seed requirements, etc., minus exports, plus imports), and the estimated deficiency in each State as well as in the

country as a whole. This should be followed by information on surplus and deficit States and the trend of exchange between them.

This brochure makes a valuable contribution by bridging a glaring gulf in agricultural statistics and should be of much interest and utility to every educated person.

4. *Estimates of Area and yield of Principal Crops in Undivided India*:—This brochure maintains a link with the past and supplies statistics from 1936-37 to 1945-46, but it is hoped that the statistics published in future will relate only to India. While the title suggests that figures are given for Undivided India, a separate treatment of the estimated share of Pakistan and Indian Union for the pre-partition figures of area and yield make this publication useful and interesting.

It is high time that the Ministry of Agriculture now discriminated between agricultural annuals and plantation perennials, and devoted a separate publication for each. Tea and coffee cannot be classified under agricultural crops. It is very desirable that plantation statistics (re-area, and yield) for tea, coffee, rubber, spices, cocoanut, arecanut, beetlevine, fruits, and other perennial wares of organized commercial plantations should now be made available in one volume from official sources.

Classification of area (Table No.1) needs drastic changes. Item No.6, 'Net Area Sown' is misleading in so far as it does not discriminate between area under agricultural annuals and plantation perennials. Likewise, when Irrigated Area (Net) is given, it is necessary also to mention the extent of acreage sown under humid-farming, dry-farming and flush or flood irrigation. If the term "Agricultural Crops" implies only the products of agricultural annuals; the above mentioned suggestions should be taken with seriousness, and tables No.3-18 should be constructed accordingly. When a scien-

tific classification of agricultural crops is adhered to, the item Beverages (Tea and Coffee) should be deleted from tables 19-36; and certain principal vegetable crops included, such as potatoes, peas and beans, pulses, etc. In Indian agricultural economy, pulses are as important staple commodities as edible oilseeds, so are potatoes, and peas and beans; their omission has really been a big gulf in statistical returns, which need bridging up forthwith.

Tables 109-112 show area under cotton and cotton production, but equally important information on trade descriptions, acreage under improved varieties, and the cotton position of the Indian Dominion according to staple length are sadly lacking. Likewise Tables 125-128 giving acreage and production of tobacco should be supplemented with information on the two principal botanical species of tobacco grown in India, viz., *Nicotiana Rustica* and *Nicotiana Tabacum*.

5. *Abstract of Agricultural Statistics of India (1936-37 to 1945-46)*:—The object of this publication is to make available to the general public in a handy form the more important statistical data in the field of agriculture properly co-related to each other, and set against the perspective of world conditions. The Agricultural statistics presented in this volume are good today for reference only. In the preparation of the next edition for the Indian Union exclusively, I hope, certain suggestion already made for publications mentioned previously, will be taken into consideration by the compiler. Two things, however, I must emphasise, first, that statistics should pertain to agricultural crops only, the perennial crops of plantations being deleted; and second in constructing summary tables a progressive average should be given in the initial period of the Indian Union's agricultural production, thus, in course of time, yielding place to a three-year moving average.

6. *Indian Agricultural Statistics*:—This annual issue of Indian Agricultural Statistics-Summary Tables for Provinces 1944-45 to 1946-47 relates to what were formerly known as British India Provinces; and I hope the Ministry of Agriculture will realize the futility of this information today.

7. *Co-operative Farming*:—An attempt has been made in this brochure to review the different types of co-operative Farming attempted in India and abroad. Problems of organizing co-operative farming on lands already occupied and new lands, have also been briefly discussed by the author. The publication of this informative monograph is very timely, indeed, when schemes of rationalizing agriculture are afoot in the country. The immediate importance of co-operative farming lies in the urgent necessity to increase national production for making the country self-sufficient in food and industrial raw materials. In the development of co-operative farming in new lands, observes the author, a solution can be found for the rehabilitation of the refugees and the floating rural population, whilst the new problems created by the abolition of the zamindari system and re-distribution of land into economic holdings can be effectively solved by the introduction of co-operative farming in old cultivated lands. The various experiments in co-operative farming recently made in India have been briefly mentioned, and the work concludes with the author's remarks on the advantages which accrue from such a type of land organization. Apart from its general educational value in the field of co-operation, the real worth of a work like this can be estimated only when it is assessed from the point of view of cultivators and land utilization societies. Little, however, can be learned by them unless details of the working of each of the experiments mentioned herein were given along with the causes of success

or failure of co-operative farming in different parts of the country. While the author sounds a note of warning that any piecemeal attempt to transplant foreign institutions on a section of the Indian soil without proper regard to development in other fields is foredoomed to failure, he takes no pains to make out a case for co-operative farming designed in keeping with the characteristic geographical, economic and social patterns of the major agricultural zones in India.

8. *Crop Calendar, 1948*:—This brochure presents information relating to the agricultural operations in progress in the different provinces from month to month together with appropriate background information relating to soil, rainfall, climate, crop seasons and rotations, sowing and harvesting seasons, and due dates of All-India forecasts of crops. The information is drawn from a variety of sources, official and non-official. As a supplement to the Crop Atlas of India, this publication should prove useful to the students of agricultural economics and the public. The utility of the information contained in this brochure will be considerably enhanced if the data presented here were illustrated with maps and varied diagrams. The distribution of types of soils, for instance, could be shown more realistically by a Soils Map of India. Likewise in chapter 2, a rainfall map showing the annual temperature and rainfall would have enabled the reader to visualize correctly the distribution of wet-zone and dry-zone crops in the country. There is a serious gap in the contents of this useful brochure, that is, the omission of a description of types of Indian agriculture (e.g. Wet Cultivation, Humid Farming, Irrigation Farming, and Dry Farming), and forms of Cultivation Practice (e.g. Brand Tillage, Crop Farming, and Mixed farming), illustrated by a map showing the agricultural zones of India,

Chapter 3, sec. 3. Double cropping in India—the characteristic practice of double cropping should be associated with agricultural zones also (States, if possible); this applies also to sec. 4, "Important Crop rotations in India". A table showing the period of inactivity, calculated for each agricultural zone, should follow the crop calendar. This is easy to calculate if a column is added to 5.1 showing the number of days required each month for completing agricultural operations mentioned therein. This period of enforced leisure will be of much value in planning subsidiary employment for the cultivators.

In spite of the afore-mentioned gaps which are likely to be bridged, this publication is a useful one. The charts C1-C14 are impressive, and the Crop Calendar (5.1 and 5.2) supplies a mine of information which makes agricultural operations more intelligible to students of Indian agriculture. If this brochure were translated into several local languages and made available to farmers, there could be no greater service rendered by the Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Ministry of Agriculture, to the cause of agricultural improvement in India.

A. M. Lorenzo.

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IMMIGRATION AND LABOUR

R. L. BAROOAH

There is a constant movement of workers to and from villages in India. This has greatly affected the creation of a stable industrial working class in the country. Analysing the causes for this constant migration of workers, Mr. Barooah suggests ways and means of stopping this movement.

Mr. R. L. Barooah is a senior student of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

There is no stable working class in India as in the Western industrial countries. The bulk of the labour population consists of immigrant labourers. They are immigrants in the sense that they do not actually belong to their places of work. The factory workers in the Western countries are born in urban areas and develop in an industrial environment. Therefore they naturally possess an industrial outlook. "The Indian industrial working class is a migratory current of the floating rural employable population, pushed to urban industrial centres due to the seasonal nature of the agricultural industry". Thus the labour supply for Indian industries is drawn for the most part from rural areas. This movement of rural workers to industrial centres is caused not so much by attraction of the cities as by the pressure of population on the land in the countryside. As Dr. R. K. Mukerji said "the crux of the problem of recruitment of Indian industrial labour consists in maintaining an unremittant and increasing flow of immigrant agriculturists and villagers to the centres of industry". This flow of migration is inter-district as well as inter-provincial. A large percentage of industrial operatives in Cotton Textile Industry of Bombay, Jute Industry of Bengal, Iron and Steel factories of Jamshedpur, Coalfields of Bengal and Bihar and the Tea Plantations of Assam belong to provinces other than those in which the industries are located.

Plantation Industry.—The plantation industry of Assam primarily depends on imported labour and is unique among large

scale industries in this respect. Most of the workers on the tea estate are recruited from other parts of the country and only about 5 per cent are obtained locally. The local Assamese people do not like to work in the tea gardens; the tea estates of Assam employ more than 5 lakhs labourers. They are usually from Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Northern Circars and Chhota-Nagpur. Bihar contributed about 50 per cent of the Plantation labour. The recruitment of labourers to the Assam Plantations is governed by the Tea District Emigrant Labour Act, 1932. Immigration is allowed only from Bengal, Bihar, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Madras and Uttar Pradesh. The main objects of the Act are (1) to see that it is voluntary recruitment; (2) that the would-be recruits know the conditions of service; (3) that reasonable arrangements are made for forwarding the labourers from their home towns to Assam and (4) that the worker, unless he wishes otherwise, is repatriated to his home at the cost of the estates after three years' service. But it is found that a large percentage of labourers do not use their right of repatriation under the provisions of the T. D. E. Labour Act, 1932, due to ignorance. The number of workers repatriated annually with their families is from 12 to 16 thousands. The figures for three years i.e. 1941 to 1943 are given below:

Year	No. of workers repatriated
1941-1942	16,853
1942-1943	15,498
1943-1944	15,888

Coal Mines.—Coal mining industry employs about 2.5 lakhs of workers. The industry is mostly located in Bihar, Bengal and Madhya Pradesh. The coal fields of Bihar and Bengal have attracted different streams of immigrant labour in successive periods. Before 1854, the Ranigunj coal field was the only one that was developed. It had to depend for its labour supply on the local inhabitants. After the opening of the East India Railway the entire character of labour in the coal fields changed. From then began the virtual Santal invasion into the coal fields. During the period of 1894-1921, Santal labour predominated in the coal fields of Jharia and Ranigunj. But towards the close of the first world war, labour from the Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and the Punjab started flowing into the coal fields of Bengal and Bihar. In the Bengal Coal Fields, about 33.9 per cent of labourers were from Bihar and Orissa. Between 1911 and 1921, their percentage rose from 2 per cent to 11 per cent of the total labour population. This went on steadily increasing in the following years. The chamars, a typical class of workers from the Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh rose in numbers. Practically the whole of this mining labour is drawn from the rural areas and hence these workers are agriculturists first and miners next¹.

Jute Mills of Bengal.—In 1944, the average number of persons employed daily in the Jute Mills was 2,98,000. The industry is mostly concentrated in Bengal. In the initial stage, the workers were mostly from the local areas. With the growth of the industry, the main sources of labour supply became the Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Bihar and Orissa. But this position

is undergoing a change. Bengali workers are now beginning to take work in this industry.

Cotton Textile Industry.—The textile industry is one of the most well established industries in India. The total number of average daily workers comes up to a little over 7 lakhs and represents about 50 per cent of the total number of operatives in the perennial factories of the country. The industry is mostly localized in the State of Bombay. The labour in the textile mills of Bombay City mostly belongs to the districts of Konkan, Satara, Ratnagiri and Sholapur; a small percentage also come from the Deccan, Uttar Pradesh and Rajputana. But the majority of workers in the textile mills of Ahmedabad, Broach, Nadiad and other places in Gujerat are drawn from the surrounding villages; only a very small percentage come from other parts of the country. In the textile mills of Madras, Madura and Coimbatore the labour force is mainly drawn from the villages of the surrounding districts.

The Manufacturing Industries of Kanpur and Jamshedpur.—In the J. K. Group of Mills at Kanpur, about 20 per cent of labour is permanently settled and drawn from the neighbouring villages. The remaining 80 per cent is migratory in character and come from Bihar, Bengal, Rajputana, Punjab and Assam². At Jamshedpur the Tata Iron and Steel Co., draws its labour from Bihar, Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Orissa and Madras. In the Tinsplate Co. of India, the proportion of labour drawn from various Provinces is reported to be as follows: Punjab, 19%; Bihar 15%; Madras 14%; Assam 11%; Bengal 11%; Madhya Pradesh 8%; Uttar Pradesh 8%; Orissa 8%; other places 6%³.

¹ B. R. Seth. Labour in the Indian Coal Industry.

² Report of the Labour Investigation Committee (Main Report) p. 73

³ Labour Investigation Committee, Government of India. 1944 (Main Report) p. 73.

The causes for the exodus of workers from rural areas to industrial centres are mainly economic. The pressure of population on land and low wages force many to move out of their native villages in search of employment in cities and towns. The movement was generally from the places where the pressure of population was great. Thus we find the migration from the over-crowded agricultural tracts of the Uttar Pradesh and Bihar to the industrial centres. The five districts of Ballia, Ghazipur, Banaras, Azamgarh and Jaunpur accounted for the movement in 1921 alone of 125,539 persons to only three industrial regions in Bengal, viz. Hoogly, Howrah and 24 Parganas¹. It is the landless labourers who first migrate; they are followed by cultivators of small uneconomic holdings. As far back as 1880, the Famine Commission observed that "the numbers who have no other employment than agriculture are greatly in excess of what is required for the thorough cultivation of India." This observation was in effect repeated fifty years later by the Royal Commission on Labour in India, 1931 who, in their report, remarked, "Over large parts of India, the number of persons on the land is much greater than the number required to cultivate it and appreciably in excess of the number required to comfortably support. In most areas, pressure on land has been increasing steadily for a long time and rise in the general standard of living has made this pressure more actually felt." The growth of the rural proletariat which has been attributed "to the loss of common rights in the rural economy, disuse of collective enterprise, the subdivision of holdings, the multiplication of rent receivers, free mortgaging and transfer of land and the decline of cottage industries" is indeed a striking feature of India's economy. It is

this feature of India's rural economy that has mainly contributed to the continuous outflow of labour from villages to cities and towns as well as overseas.

Migration of Labour Overseas.—The total number of emigrant labour from India is estimated at 4.1 million. Of these, about 76 per cent are distributed in Burma, Ceylon, Indonesia, Malaya, Fiji, West Indies and Mauritius. In recent years, particularly since the economic depression of the 1930s the emigration has virtually ceased.²

Indians in West Indies.—As early as 1835, Indians, especially from Bihar and the U. P. began migrating to the West Indies under a system of indenture to sugar plantation which promised hardwork, quick money and a free return passage home after ten years. Although these were entitled to free return passage after ten years' stay in the colonies, the majority of them chose to settle permanently in those countries. Thus from plantation labourers, they became pioneer settlers. Today from Jamaica to British Guiana, a large Indian community is to be found.

Indians in South Africa.—The first batch of indentured labourers came to Natal from India in 1860, to work on sugar plantations. In addition to the indentured labour, there was also constant flow of unassisted immigration of Indians into South Africa. In 1913, the Union of South Africa enacted the Immigration Act by which further immigration from India was prohibited. The Government of India abolished the system of indentured labour due to public agitation in 1920. Most of the Indian immigration in South Africa chose to settle permanently in spite of many restrictions and disabilities.

¹ Labour Investigation Committee. Government of India. 1944 (Main Report) p. 73.

² Preparatory Asiatic Regional Conference of the I.L.O. New Delhi: 1947. Report No. 2.

Indians in Ceylon.—The tea and rubber plantations in Ceylon have also depended heavily upon immigrant labour from South India. It was estimated that, at the end of 1936, there were no less than 659,000 Indian workers on the plantations, as against 57,000 native workers¹. By 1945, the number of Ceylonese workers increased to 134,000 and that of Indian workers fell to 447,000. It was due to the rapid growth of population in Ceylon and deterioration in the living standards of the small Ceylonese peasants. The decrease in the number of Indian workers was due in part, to the action of the Government of India in prohibiting the flow of unskilled labour into Ceylon. In 1948, the Ceylon Government withdrew certain railway concessions granted to Indian estate workers travelling to and from India as there was no necessity of attracting new Indian workers. Certain restrictions were imposed on the transfer of funds from Ceylon to India.

Indian Immigration of Labour in Java, Malaya etc.—From the very beginning, the planters of Malaya and Java have had to import labour from the densely populated neighbouring countries, primarily India and China. This large scale influx of immigrant labour has profoundly changed the racial distribution of population of Malaya and Java. In 1941, out of a total population of approximately 5.51 millions in Malaya, Indians were 13.5 per cent. The majority of the plantation workers particularly on the rubber plantations, are Indian and they are of two types, viz., unassisted and assisted immigrants.

Thus it can be seen that there has always been a continual flow of Indian workers from the villages to factory centres inside the country and from the country overseas. The overseas migration has of late dropped

down a little due to several restrictions imposed by the Governments of various countries on Indian settlers; but the flow of workers from rural areas to urban centres still continues.

The peasants who leave the rural environment for employment in factories find themselves transported into a new cultural and economic set up in urban centres. They have, therefore, to adjust themselves to the new surroundings in the cities. The continuous exodus of landless workers from rural areas to the industrial centres tends to delay the process of mechanization of our industries by keeping human labour cheaper than the cost of mechanical development. This influx of workers directly affects the labour market. Plentiful supply of migrant workers from rural areas checks the rise in industrial wages which tend to maintain a parity with the rural wage scale. The standard of living of an industrial worker in an urban area is constantly threatened by the influx of fresh workers from the countryside anxious to get a job at any price, prepared to stay in the most insanitary hovels and unaccustomed to any form of modern social organization. This movement of workers from rural areas to factory centres has also a deleterious effect on the growth of the Indian trade union movement. It has proved to be one of the biggest handicaps in organizing strong trade unionism in the country.

The link with the countryside which characterises industrial labour in India has its advantages as well as disadvantages. It provides a much needed supply of funds to the countryside from urban areas in the form of remittances from industrial workers to their relatives in the villages. Also when they return to their villages, the workers take their savings with them.

¹ Preparatory Asiatic Regional Conference of I.L.O. in Delhi, 1947. Report IV.

Moreover, it facilitates the penetration of urban influences and improved ways of life into isolated parts of the interior. The village also provides a home of refuge to the industrial workers in times of sickness or in his old age. On the other hand, the industrial worker tends to look upon his urban existence with its restraints and discipline of organized employment as a temporary, if not disagreeable phase from which escape may one day be sought in the freedom of his native village. This attitude on the part of the worker prevents his complete urbanisation and industrialisation. Hence he always remains a half villager and a half industrial proletarian, thereby creating complex and complicated industrial problems in the country, apart from the difficulties of his cultural adjustment to the urban atmosphere.

The problems of those who have migrated overseas are different. They are in perpetual danger of exploitation and maltreatment, because the laws of their own country can no longer protect them. This can be illustrated by the case of the Indians in South Africa, East Indies and other places. But one encouraging feature is that, inspite of so many disabilities and restrictions, they have been able to improve their conditions and contribute immensely to the development of those places where they migrated. These industrious and law abiding poor agricultural immigrant workers from India played an important part in the development of those British Colonies.

Remedies.—So far very little has been done to tackle this problem of labour migration from villages to towns. A comprehensive scheme should be adopted to bring about Agrarian Reforms on the lines suggested by the Congress Agrarian Commission (Kumarappa Committee Report). Greater employment opportunities have to be created

in the innumerable villages that lie scattered in India. The villager should not be allowed to feel that he will get better employment if he goes to a town or a city. Introduction of Co-operative Farming, improved methods of agriculture, development of rural industries and industrial co-operatives (Indusco) on the Chinese model would diminish the migration of men from the countryside to the urban centres. In this sense, both Mahatmaji's attempt to revive the spinning wheel and cottage industries and the plans of the industrialists like Henry Ford to locate factories in rural communities may be regarded as attempts to meet the same problem.

The scheme for regional distribution of industries is ideally suited to such a vast country as India. Organised industries can be established near the sources of their raw materials and labour market. We can take the example of Russia where Cotton Mill industry is located in Central Asia and Transcaucasia and beet, and sugar industries in the Northern parts of Ukraine. The industries can be formed in India as they were formed in wartime China. Or a great number of industries can be distributed into small components as have been done in the Scandinavian countries, Czechoslovakia, Belgium, Sweden and spread out in the country in order to increase employment opportunities. For the stabilization of our industrial working class, the general working conditions of the various industries should be improved. Anything which contributed to the permanent stabilization of industry would reduce this danger of periodic influx into the labour market from the countryside.

The Government of India have recently appointed the National Planning Commission under the Chairmanship of Prime

Minister Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru. Among the members of the Commission, there are prominent industrialists, economists and labour leaders. We hope the Commission would consider this problem of stabilization and creation of a real industrial working class in India. They must also find out some ways and means to stop this influx of landless agricultural workers into the urban industrial centres. India is on her way to industrialization. Hence the Planning Commission must pay serious attention to this problem of migration of workers from rural areas.

ABSENTEEISM IN INDUSTRY

V. LAKSHMINARAYANA RAO

Absenteeism in industry has been a persistent evil in India. It is not uncommon even in some industrially advanced countries like the U. S. A. and the U. K. The author, in this article, makes a comparative study of absenteeism in industry in India and abroad and makes suggestions for minimising this evil, which deserve the attention of all industrialists.

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The problem of absenteeism in industry faces almost every country in the world. In India, its magnitude is far greater than in the western countries.

Absenteeism is generally understood in different ways by different persons. It is commonly understood as an employee or a group of employees remaining absent from work either continuously for a long period or repeatedly for short periods. But in the industrial field, absenteeism conveys a different meaning, and is expressed in different ways in different countries or industries. In simple language, it is the total number of workers absent expressed as a percentage of the total number of workers employed.

In more technical words the same may be said to mean "a ratio of the number of production man-days or shifts lost to the total number of production man-days or shifts scheduled to work."

For purposes of calculation, an employee is considered scheduled to work, when there is work available and the employee is aware of it, and when the employer is fully aware that the employee will be available. In calculating absenteeism, public holidays, and other days when the factory is closed are excluded. When the employee takes time off on a scheduled working day, he is considered to be absent. Also, when the worker remains away from work, without informing the employer, he is treated as wilfully absent.

In calculating the rate of absenteeism, the procedure adopted differs from mill to mill in the same place and from place to place in the same industry. For example, in the cotton textile mills in Bombay, if a worker is absent and a substitute is taken in his place, as far as the permanent worker is concerned, he is treated as absent. But in the mills in Ahmedabad, if a substitute is taken for the permanent worker who is absent, he is not treated as absent for calculating the rate of absenteeism. Such divergencies in methods of calculation exist from place to place and factory to factory in the country. This makes a lot of difference and hence it is not possible to have a clear and comprehensive or comparative view of the rate of absenteeism in industry for want of a uniform basis.

Secondly, no scientific method is adopted in India, for investigating the rate of absenteeism in any particular industry, on a nationwide scale or even in a localized unit, as is done in the western industrial countries. In the West, research bodies like the National Industrial Research Board in England are making special enquiries into the causes and incidence of absenteeism in a selected area or industry within a specified time. Similar investigations have been made in other countries like Canada by the Canadian Munitions and Supply Department and in New Zealand by the Industrial Psychological Department, of the Scientific Industrial Research Department and the results of their investigations along

with their suggestions for improving the conditions are published. Such investigations into industrial labour conditions in India were hitherto carried on, though not on very scientific lines, on only two occasions, once by the Royal Commission on Labour in 1931, and then in 1946 by the Labour Investigation Committee. On both these occasions, the investigations were so comprehensive, and the field of enquiry was so wide that little time and space were devoted to the subject of labour absenteeism in Industry.

According to the Royal Commission, no industry was able to collect or furnish any data about the causes or rate of absenteeism. Even when such data were collected in some cases as absenteeism due to sickness they were inadequate again, as the details of sickness etc. were not available. The Royal Commission also noted that a large percentage of absenteeism was being classified under "other causes" or "without any acceptable reason." But during the period of the Second War, more care seems to have been taken to collect data on absenteeism in Industry.

Absenteeism In Cotton Textile Industry.—

A high rate of absenteeism prevails in the cotton textile industry in India. This industry is mostly localized in the three centres of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur in the Bombay State, Madras, Madura and Coimbatore in the Madras State and to a minor extent in Nagpur in Madhya Pradesh and Kanpur in the Uttar Pradesh. The following tables gives a comparative idea of the rate of absenteeism in cotton textile mills in a few centres of the country in the three years 1939, 1944 and 1948:—

*Absenteeism in Cotton Textiles**

Place	Absenteeism in Percentage		
	1939	1944	1948
1. Bombay	10.5	11.4	13.3
2. Ahmedabad	3.3	5.7	5.9
3. Sholapur	10.8	15.4	18.1
4. Madura	10.1	13.6	13.9
5. Madras	—	—	9.1
6. Calcutta	8.9	6.31	

Of the three places in the Bombay State, the rate of absenteeism is very high in Sholapur in all the three periods and it is lowest in Ahmedabad. This is due to the difference in method adopted in calculating the rate of absenteeism in the three centres.

Woollen Textiles.—The rate of absenteeism is equally high in the woollen textile industry also in Bombay, when compared with the figures elsewhere. It was 15.2 percent in Bombay in 1948, while in the same year it was 11.68 percent in the U.P., 10.63 percent in Mysore and 14.8 percent in Kashmir.**

But it is not known whether or not a uniform method is followed in computing the figures in all the centres.

Iron and Steel Industry.—The figures for Iron and Steel Industry reveal that the rate of absenteeism is high in Bengal and Bihar, where it was 13.9% in 1949, whereas, in Madras, it was 6.9% in the same year. This industry is mostly concentrated in Bihar and Bengal due to the proximity of the available raw materials. Attempts have been made to bring down the percentage of absenteeism in this industry but they seem to have produced practically no result so far.

*Figures for 1939 and 1944 are taken from the Labour Investigation Committee Report and for 1948 from the Indian Labour Gazette 1948-49.

¹ This figure is for the year 1943.

** Indian Labour Gazette, June 1949, p. 883.

The figures of absenteeism in some industries are classified on the basis of their causes. The following table shows absenteeism classified according to their causes:—

STATEMENT SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF ABSENTEEISM BY CAUSES IN THE YEAR 1949 IN THREE STATES.

State	Sickness	Leave Other than Holidays	Social Causes	Other Causes	Total
Bengal	3.4%	8.3%	0.3%	1.9%	13.9%
Bihar	4.5%	5.2%	1.4%	2.8%	13.9%
Madras	1.8%	3.4%	1.7%	...	6.9%
All States	3.2%	5.6%	1.1%	1.6%	11.6%

It is interesting to note from the above table that of all the causes "leave other than holidays" accounts for nearly 50% of absenteeism. Sickness comes next and works out to less than 33½%.

In Bengal and Bihar, labour is mostly recruited from the neighbouring villages and also other States like the U.P., M.P., and the Punjab. Absenteeism has been found to be greater during the harvesting seasons, when they go to their villages for sowing, transplantation and other agricultural operations. The workers that come from other States go to their native places twice or thrice a year and remain absent for about ten to fifteen days on each occasion.

Coal Mines.—The rate of absenteeism is high in coal mines especially among the miners and loaders. Generally agricultural and tribal people of the neighbouring villages are recruited for work in the mines. As they are more attached to their land, they absent themselves periodically from this work. These agricultural workers are found to have a natural dislike for work underground. The rate of absenteeism is

very high—in Bihar it was 34.4% in 1947. The most important reason as explained by Dr. R. K. Mukherjee in his book, "The Indian Working Class" is, that there is a general shortage of labour force in the mines and labour does not remain steady. Workers constantly move from mine to mine in search of better wages.

Mica Mines.—Absenteeism in mica mines is also very high. Even though no proper records are maintained in any of the mines, the Labour Investigation Committee has enquired and found out that about one-third of the total labour force remains absent on the day following the pay-day, and about 10 to 15% remain absent for two or three days. It was found that absenteeism in mica factories of M/S Chrestein & Co. was as high as 25 per cent in 1943. The rate of absenteeism is still higher in the mica mines in Madras State—34.4%; it is higher among the non-resident workers during the rainy season. In mica factories in Madras, the rate of absenteeism varies between 10 per cent and 20 per cent from one factory to another. But in Rajputana, the problem is not so great, except during the monsoon. Here labour is not mobile and there is not much of drink evil as in Bihar and Madras.

Tea Plantations.—The rate of absenteeism in plantations is equally high, especially in the tea gardens of Assam. When compared to other industries, the rate in tea plantations stands second in order, while that in the mines takes the first place. It is also seen from the following table* that absenteeism increased during the war years.

Absenteeism in Tea Plantations in Assam:
(Figures in %)

Pre-War	During War	Post-War
1938-39	1944-45	1946-47
25.2	27.7	24.2

*Indian Labour Gazette 1938-39, 44-47.

In plantations, absenteeism, it has been found, is generally higher in summer than in other seasons.

Cement.—In cement factories figures of absenteeism vary from State to State as shown below for the year 1949 for 11 months* :—

Madras—6.4%

Madhya Pradesh—11.5%

Bihar—13.2%

Bengal—10.1%

The percentage of absenteeism in these cases has been found to be very high in January '49 in M.P. and Bihar and falls to half by the year end. But it is reported that in all the four States there is a higher rate of absenteeism in the months of January and July.

Ordnance Factories.—The figures of absenteeism have been collected in different ordnance factories since the war, as the Government realised the necessity of finding out the rate of absenteeism and its causes and effects, in order to minimise the same, and increase production. The following figures will give an idea of absenteeism in this industry and the percentage under each cause during the year 1948 to 1949:—

Percentage of Absenteeism in Ordnance Factories in 1948-49§

State	Sickness	Leave other than Holidays	Social and Religious Causes	Other Causes	Total
Bengal	2.2	2.5	0.2	2.5	7.4
Madras	0.3	6.0	0.2	0.2	6.7
Uttar Pradesh	1.2	4.5	0.5	1.5	7.7
Madhya Pradesh	1.4	7.7	0.2	0.8	10.1

*Ibid, 1949.

§Indian Labour Gazette 1948-49.

**Indian Labour Gazette, April 1949.

From the above statement it can be seen that the rate of absenteeism is higher in the Madhya Pradesh than in other States.

Dockyards.—Among the dockyard workers in Bombay, Calcutta, Cochin and Vizagapatam, the rate of absenteeism is very considerable as shown by the table below:—

PERCENTAGE OF ABSENTEEISM IN DOCKYARDS
IN 1946-47**

State	Dockyard	1946 %	1947 %
Bombay	Mazgaon	31.7	31.8
„	H.M.I. Dockyard	19.47	16.09
„	Bombay Steam Navigation Co.	9.88	9.91
Calcutta	India General Naval & Railway Co.	—	13.1
Cochin	Dockyard	6.3	8.1
Vizagapatam	Scindia Steam Navigation Co.	18.9	10.19

The percentage is highest in Mazagaon Docks in Bombay. This may be due to the Pali system existing here—that is the workers are sent on forced leave by turns, whenever there is shortage of work. The range between maximum and minimum is far wider in Scindia Docks at Vizagapatam, which is 20.4% in January 1947, and 3.2% in October 1947.

It is not known whether a uniform method has been adopted in computing the figures of absenteeism in all the dockyards. It does not appear to have been followed; the low figure for October '47 was due to the labour strike in that month. If the strike situation is not taken into consideration, the figures as they are do not speak of the facts.

So far, the rate of absenteeism as it exists in different industries in different States of India has been shown. It is clear from the few tables given that absenteeism varies from 10% to 15% in factory industry and it is 25% in plantations and about 40% in mica mines. On a careful scrutiny of the various tables of absenteeism given above, it is seen that in general absenteeism is considerably higher in North India than in the South.

It may here be profitable to compare the figures of absenteeism in industries in India with those obtaining in industries in the highly developed Western countries. Unlike the investigations in India, enquiries into absenteeism and the causes thereof in the Western countries have been made on more scientific methods; and the remedies suggested are generally carried out by the industries, Government and private bodies.

Absenteeism in U.K.—The industrial Research Board under the auspices of the Medical Research Council carried out an investigation into the problems of absenteeism in the United Kingdom. The extent of this enquiry was in all 60 factories, big and small, employing about 75000 workers and found out the following results:—

	Absenteeism
Peace Time	— 5%
War Time	— 6 to 8% for men
" "	— 10 to 15% for women

It was also found that women absentees are twice as many as men and married women three times more than the unmarried ones. Another important fact revealed by the enquiry is that the rate of absenteeism is double in larger and new factories than in smaller and old establishments. Secondly the rate again is higher among women workers. Thirdly, the rate of absenteeism is higher in the case of workers, whose living places are far away from the factory.

The factors within the factory that are found responsible for the high rate of absenteeism are—(1) Long hours of work; (2) Bad working conditions; (3) Efficiency and general contentment of the labour force; (4) Boredom which affects the younger workers; (5) Lack of co-operation between management and labour and between groups of workers.

The investigating Board suggested that the worker's health, physical and mental, should be safeguarded, as they found that absenteeism in most cases was caused by illness. Secondly they also suggested improvement of transport facilities, besides creating satisfactory working conditions in the factory.

New Zealand.—Similar enquiries into absenteeism were conducted by the Industrial Psychology Department of the Scientific Industrial Research Department in New Zealand and found that the rate of absenteeism in factories was 6.5% for men and 11.5% for women due to all causes.

Australia.—An enquiry was conducted into the matter in 1942, when 16 private factories and 10 Government factories, employing about 20,000 workers were studied. In this method of enquiry, leave and authorised holidays were excluded and absence of all other categories was taken into account. The rate of absenteeism according to this enquiry was 7% for men and 13% for women. The absenteeism was higher among women workers.

Canada.—An enquiry was conducted in Canada in 1942 to find out the rate of absenteeism, by the Canadian Munitions and Supply Department.

The field of enquiry covered 35 factories engaged in war work and they were representative of the whole of Canada, both big

and small factories employing 12,000 to 100 workers, the average being 2,500. The average rate of absenteeism was 6.4% in October 1942, and 6.9% in November 1942. Here also the results indicated that the rate was higher among women workers; in one factory it was 24%.

The rate of absenteeism is found to be comparatively lower in the western industrial countries, as seen from the statistics given above for a few countries. This may be perhaps due to the industrial consciousness of the workers there.

Effects of Absenteeism.—Absenteeism causes a twofold loss. Firstly it affects the worker in his earnings; and secondly, it affects production. The worker, by absenting himself from work, earns less than what he should and thereby his standard of living is lowered. When he is unable to maintain a proper standard of life, his efficiency is lowered, consequently the quality of the article produced also is affected.

Secondly, production in the industry is retarded, due to the frequent and repeated absence of a number of workers in each department. It may not be the same worker or group of workers. It is not possible for the industrialists or the works manager to handle the situation with the help of untrained substitute labour, whose standard of production and efficiency are not on a par with those of the experienced and trained permanent workers. Therefore, the employer has to maintain a permanent auxiliary labour force in the factory, to replace the absentees. But this will increase the cost of production. Even if the latter course were to be adopted it gives an advantage to the employer to 'play off' workers and force some of them to go on compulsory leave, as is usually done in many of the textile factories.

Both these factors indirectly affect the morale of other workers in the job. The foreman or production manager may ask the worker who is present to do the job of the absentee, instead of taking a substitute in order to avoid the increase in the cost of production. In such a case, the workers will resent it and this creates bad feelings among them. Therefore, industrialists consider that absenteeism is a persistent hindrance to production.

An examination can now be made of the various causes of absenteeism, which is so high in India.

Sickness.—The most important and common reason that is given by an employee for his absence from work is sickness. The general health of the industrial workers is very low due to malnutrition, low wages and hard manual work for long hours. His general vitality is sapped in the factory and when he returns home he has to live in a crowded, ill ventilated house in an insanitary locality.

Secondly, the occupational diseases like silicosis caused by inhaling of quartz dust by the miner, in a mica or coal mine and fluff by the sider and the waste cooly in a cotton textile factory, affect the respiratory system of the worker and shortens his span of life. In order to save himself from the fatal end, or to cure himself of the disease, the worker frequently absents himself from work.

Accident is another important cause which accounts for absenteeism. Generally in every factory where statistics of absenteeism are maintained, accidents and sickness are treated under one head. Lack of proper knowledge about the use of the machine, and improper or lack of protection of the machine are responsible for the high incidence of accidents.

Accidents also occur due to bad working conditions. Managements have to rectify these unsafe conditions. During 1943, in the shipyards in the United States, it was estimated that the total man-days lost were 20 per each disabling injury, which were estimated as 1,02,500.

The rate of absenteeism caused by sickness and accident is about 25% of the total absenteeism.

Hours of Work.—Even though the Factory Act stipulates the hours of work as 48 per week and 8 to 8½ hours per day with rest breaks, many industries do not observe this rule. Even under the present stipulated time, the worker is exhausted and unless he takes sufficient rest, he is not fit for work the next day. Many employers often engage the same workers for working overtime also. The worker too, not knowing the consequences, takes up overtime work for immediate economic advantage. It has been investigated and found in the West that workers working for longer hours per day are more frequently absent than those that work shorter hours with intervals for rest.

Fatigue.—This is caused by arduous work and compels a man to take rest. When he neglects to take rest, during night, he is forced to absent himself from work the next day.

Boredom.—The monotonous and repetitive job causes absenteeism. The worker should be allowed to change over from one job to another to get relief from the monotony as is often done by the drawer and reacher in the drawing Department of the textile industry.

Unsuitable working conditions, like bad lighting and ventilation, extremes of tem-

perature and other factors often lead to exhaustion and illness and consequently to absence from work.

Lack of understanding between the worker and the management or between worker and the foreman, and worker and worker causes mental and psychological tension. When the worker is having an internal conflict, he loses all interest in his job and absents himself from work. So the Labour Officer or management should see that there is complete harmony and understanding between one section and another of workers, and try to maintain harmonious relations in the factory premises.

Job placement is very important from the point of view of absenteeism. If the worker is placed on a job for which he is not trained properly, or is psychologically or physically not suitable, then he will not take interest in his work. This leads to discouragement, fatigue, accident and finally to absence.

Lack of proper *medical aid and first aid* is also responsible for absenteeism. If the worker, for every minute ailment or injury has to go elsewhere for first aid or medical help, he will be absent from his job. Similarly when any member of his family, wife or child, falls sick, and if there is no proper arrangement to provide them adequate medical help, he remains absent from work.

Lack of such welfare facilities as canteens, nutritive food, snacks and tea, rest rooms, sanitary conditions etc., will surely increase absenteeism.

Low Wages.—If wages are below the subsistence level, the worker will be forced to seek subsidiary job in order to supplement his earnings. In such a case, he frequently absents himself from his main job.

Besides these various factors, there are also others which lead to absenteeism in industry. Some of these are discussed below.

Bad housing condition is one of the most important factors. A contented labour force that lives near the work place will be an asset to any industry. If the worker has to walk a long distance early in the morning and late in the evening, he feels exhausted and often desires to take rest at home. In such a case, during the rainy season, the worker fails to go to the factory, for want of facilities. And lack of proper transport facilities also affects a worker's attendance at the place of his work. Further lack of marketing facilities near the living place also is reported to partially cause the workers, especially women workers, to absent themselves from work. Besides these, festivals, religious occasions, marriages in the family, etc., keep a worker away from his work frequently.

Another important factor is the desire for rest and enjoyment. The Indian worker feels that he needs rest and without it he thinks that he will fall ill and so he forces himself to rest by feigning sickness.

Drink evil is another important cause for absenteeism. In Bihar and Madras, workers in the mining areas are generally addicted to drink, and the day after pay absenteeism is the highest as many visit the toddy shop, get drunk and fail to report to duty the next day. The weaving community in Sholapur is also reported to be addicted to drink and therefore frequently absent themselves from work.

Absenteeism among married women is frequent, because they have to play the dual role, one as the bread winner, and secondly as the housewife. She has to attend to children, husband and other rela-

tives at home and also work on her job in the mill.

In India as well as in other countries little has been done to meet the situation and bring down the rate of absenteeism. So far the employer is providing few welfare amenities like medical aid, housing, transport and marketing facilities.

Precautions no doubt are being taken to prevent and reduce the incidence of accidents. Measures such as fencing the machinery by railings are being adopted by employers in many cases for the safety of the workers. Though these precautions are taken by the employers, yet very few are giving necessary instructions to the workers, when they are first employed, about the handling of the machinery and precautionary steps they have to take in the course of the performance of their duties.

Every employer has provided medical facilities as required by the Factory Act. In some mills, first aid dispensaries are established and in others regular medical officers and Safety Engineers are appointed to co-ordinate the work of treatment and prevention of accidents and injuries.

The Factorics Act laid down the provision for the weekly holidays, rest pauses and leave with pay in order that the workers may have adequate rest and enjoy their social life. But it is found that in practice, the worker is permitted to take leave, not according to his need, but to suit the convenience of the employer. So the workers in many instances are forced to go home without applying for leave. This causes more of unaccountable absenteeism. In some cases, the worker does not inform the employer, even when he is leaving the job in preference to another. So for some time at least he is treated as absent in one factory

though he may have started work in another.

In mica mines and coal mines, there are no facilities whatsoever, to prevent accidents occurring daily due to the falling off of the sides and the roof. Due to inadequate lighting, especially in mica mines, workers have to grope in the dark with small candles in hand; when once these candles are blown out, they cannot proceed further with their work. Many accidents occur due to bad working conditions. Workers should be provided with electric torch lights in the mines.

Little is being done to improve the social condition of the worker and his family. In cities, they live in crowded slums where welfare activities are carried by the municipal authorities just in name.

In case the State or the employer or the community provides a decent standard of living conditions, with all the amenities of recreation, health, sanitation and education for children, within easy reach of the worker and his family, he will not have any occasion to worry when he is on his job. He will concentrate on his work, which will increase his efficiency and thereby production and his earnings as well.

In some industries, the employer is giving profit sharing bonus. In some cases, this bonus is paid on attendance basis, as in the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur. Surely this may be an incentive to the worker. But experience of such bonus systems as attendance bonus, production bonus, efficiency bonus, etc., has shown that it only corrupts the worker and has not improved him, nor has it in any way reduced or solved the problem of absenteeism.

So far no attempt has been made in India to consider and solve this problem of

absenteeism in the right perspective. Whatever measures are adopted by employers in this direction are done, not with a view to mitigating this problem but only to satisfying demands of the workers and only to meeting the provisions of the Factories Act. The problem is not the complete elimination of absenteeism for that is impossible of achievement, but is prevention and control of it.

The following few suggestions may be considered to reduce and control absenteeism in industry.

The employer as well as the worker should have a complete understanding of the difficulties both have to face in industry and should co-operate with each other. The relation between the worker and the foreman must be friendly. The foreman must have a humanitarian and sympathetic attitude towards the workers under his charge, and should not irritate them. The employer should select such trained supervisory staff who are capable of handling the situation in the right way.

Whenever a worker is absent, the Personnel Officer or his staff should visit the worker at his place of residence in a friendly approach and find out the cause of his absence and give all necessary advice and help. He should not hurt the worker's feelings and give him scope to think that he is doing all this in the interests of the management. For this, every factory should employ trained personnel staff with modern outlook. The worker should be made to feel that he is one of the entire organization and has equal responsibilities in the production and working of the industry. He must be made to feel that he is contributing a valuable part in the promotion of the interests and welfare of his nation. A study of a worker's attitude towards his

work, fellow workers, supervisors and the effect of external factors on his attitudes is very important if the rate of absenteeism has to be reduced.

Selection of a right type of person for the right job is most important in an industry. The Personnel Officer must know the job requirements and how to select the right man. There are many misfits in every factory. Due to improper and wrong selection, a person who will be more suitable to work in a particular job, may be employed on some other job in which he finds no interest and thereby frequently absents himself from work. After employment, the personnel department should study and investigate with the help of the Engineer or foreman whether the worker is suitable for the job; if not he should be immediately changed to another suitable job.

The wage level should be raised, so that the worker has no financial worries when he is on the job. If he has to think of how to pay his medical bills and for the education of children, and such other problems, he will not attend to his work pro-

perly. The employer or the community should give him facilities to borrow in cases of emergencies at low rate or no rate of interest by starting co-operative credit societies and also by giving loans from his provident fund.

Adequate marketing facilities within the reach of the worker and his family will also help to bring down the rate of absenteeism. Co-operative Consumer Stores should be started nearer the working class localities.

The worker should be diverted from the drink evil, which accounts for a large percentage of absenteeism. As there is no other way of amusement and diversion provided by either the employer or the community or the State, he straight away goes to the toddy shop. The introduction of prohibition alone will not solve the problem; he must be given some other amusement or activity to recreate his mind and body and relieve him from fatigue and emotional tensions. Though it is the responsibility of the State, the employer and the community should help him in this by providing recreational facilities during his leisure hours.

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INDUSTRIAL HOUSING

R. C. DAS

Working class housing in India is far from satisfactory. General schemes have been made and suggested for improving housing conditions in the country but so far little has been done in the direction of improvement of the situation. The writer in this article studies the situation and suggests ways and means of meeting it.

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Housing is an elementary necessity of life. In congested cities, its value and importance becomes next to food. It can be said that the full economic and social significance of good housing has not yet been appreciated in this country. With the exception of a few, housing to many employers here has meant little more than a mere erection of walls of bricks and mortar or bricks and mud in a more or less symmetrical form. Modern housing, as described by Catherine Bauer* has certain qualities and embodies certain methods and purposes which distinguish it sharply from the typical residential environment of the past century. For one thing, it is built, for efficient use over a period of years; and therefore it is not designed primarily for quick profits. It is planned, and so it must be non-speculative. This new housing method recognises that the integral unit for planning the economic unit for construction and administration and social unit for living is the complete neighbourhood designed and equipped as such. Modern housing does not, therefore constitute a mere mechanical extension of streets and agglomeration of individual, competitive dwellings. It has a beginning and an end, and some sort of visible organic form. One part is related to another part, and each part serves a particular predestined use. It can never deteriorate into a slum or a 'lighted area' or a case for expensive remedial 'city planning'. Moreover, modern housing provides certain minimum amenities for every dwelling. Cross-ventilation for one thing;

sunlight, quiet and pleasant outlook from every window, adequate privacy, space and sanitary facilities and an adjacent children's play ground. And finally it will be available at a price which citizens of average income or less can afford. How many workmen's quarters are there in India which might be termed modern? Perhaps, none at all or so few that their number is like a drop in the ocean.

Now we shall proceed to describe in some detail housing conditions in some principal urban areas, taking a bird's eye view of the position in regard to different industries therein.

Bombay.—After the partition of India, the population of Bombay increased enormously. It stood at 11,61,383 in 1931, 14,89,883 in 1941, and at about 20 lakhs at the close of the Second World War. Thus population rapidly increased in Bombay but there has not been a proportionate increase in the number of houses. Hence the problem of housing has become acute. The typical working class dwelling in Bombay is the 'Chawl', a pucca building, 3 to 4 storeys high, with a central passage or a common verandah leading generally to one room tenements. If an average of more than 2½ persons per room be taken as an indication of overcrowding, 96% of the population of Bombay may be said to be living in overcrowded tenements and housed so inadequately that the streets have to be used to supplement their sleeping accommodation.

*Catherine Bauer: Modern Housing p. xv.

The following sections of the city show the worst forms of overcrowding. Byculla, with 99% of the families living in single-room tenements, Sewri 89%, Mazagaon and Parel with 88% and Second Nagpada with 87%. The workers in Bombay live in mud huts thatched with coconut leaves, in corrugated iron sheds and in tenements or chawls. The tenements are standardised slums, dark and overcrowded with unsatisfactory and inadequate facilities of water supply and sanitation. The following table will show the distribution of taps in the old and new tenements of Bombay city.

Percentage of distribution in

OLD TENEMENTS			NEW TENEMENTS
1.	1 tap for less than 8 tenements	11	56
2.	1 tap for 9 to 15 tenements	44	33
3.	1 tap for over 15 tenements	44	11

Forty-six old tenements did not provide for any water taps at all. As regards latrines in most of the Bombay chawls there is one latrine for 8 tenements.*

After the Great War of 1914-18, to improve the working class housing conditions in the city and island of Bombay, the Government launched on an industrial housing scheme under the auspices of the Development Department. This Scheme comprises at present 207 chawls of 80 rooms each (with one exception which has 64 rooms) in the following four different areas:—§

Area.	No. of Chawls	No. of Chawl Superintendents
Worli ...	121	7
Naigaum ...	42	2
Delisle Road	32	2
Sewri ...	12	1

The chawls contain 16,244 living rooms and 300 shops. The rent charged is as follows:—

Area	Rent per room per month.
	Rs.
Worli ...	5
Naigaum ...	7
Delisle Road	8
Sewri ...	7

Corporation Chawls.—The Bombay City Improvement Trust built 2045 tenements on behalf of 4 Textile Mills in the city under the Improvement Trust Act. The Trust also constructed 9,330 tenements and 2800 Semi-permanent sheds which are occupied by the Textile workers in the city. The rents in the chawls vary from Rs. 4/15 to Rs. 10/8 and that of the sheds from Rs. 2/8 to Rs. 6/-. Besides this, the Bombay Corporation owns in the estates acquired by the Old Improvement Trust, chawls consisting of nearly 5000 one room tenements.

Port Trust Colonies.—The Port Trust have provided housing accommodation for about 30% of their workers. Two independent housing colonies have been established, one at the Antop Village under the control of Labour Welfare Officer, and the other at the Wadi Bunder under the control of the Docks Manager. The former comprises of 494 residential units built in single storeyed two-room cottages and each unit has a *chula* (fire place) and a 'nahavni' (washing place). Of these, about 86 have also covered verandah 4' wide. The floor area of each unit is 180 sq. feet. Each room has generally one window and two doors. Ventilation and lighting are satisfactory. The average number of persons staying in each unit is about 8. Electricity has been provided for street lighting only;

*See R. K. Mukherji—Indian Working Class P. 271.

§Labour Investigation Committee, Government of India. p. 297

kerosene oil lamps are used inside the houses. There are 17 water storage tanks in the colony; but still there is inadequacy of water supply. Common bathrooms, latrines and washing place have been provided for each block of houses. The general sanitation is poor as open drains pass through the centre with houses on both sides. The rents are Rs. 3/4, Rs. 6/-, and Rs. 5/-, for scavengers, engineering employees, and railway employees respectively. The second housing colony at Wadi Bunder consists of 7 chawls. This colony houses two types of workers, scavengers and sweepers and other workers. There are 196 residential units for scavengers, consisting of a single room and a common passage, while the general body of workers are housed in four five-storeyed chawls, built of concrete consisting of about 200 residential units of double row type, with a central corridor 8' wide. All these quarters are single room tenements with a floor area of about 120 sq. feet each. The average number of persons occupying a room is sometimes as high as 12. Congestion is still more intensified by the habit of some families taking in paying guests. Tap-water is available only on the ground floor. Only 8 latrines and 8 bathrooms are provided for each floor. In addition to these two colonies, the Port Trust has built about 525 single, double and three-room quarters at various places in the Port area, Carnac Bunder and Wadala.

Textile Mill Chawls.—Twentyone mills in Bombay have provided quarters for their workers in 4,301 tenements. Of these, 3,354 are single-roomed, 939 double-roomed and 8 with three or more rooms. All these tenements are located in 166 chawls generally built near the Mills. The majority of the rooms are 10 square feet. Arrangements for water supply and sanitation are

common. Electric light is supplied in the corridors.

Private Chawls.—Of the families covered 91.24% live in one-room tenements and the average number of persons residing in each such tenement is 3.84. The approximate floor space is 103.23 sq. feet. The average monthly rent is Rs. 6-14-4, for one-room tenement. Latrines and bathrooms are deficient. Ventilation and sanitary conditions are unsatisfactory.

Ahmedabad.—The Government have not provided any housing in Ahmedabad. The Municipality has built tenements for Harijans and others. Each tenement comprises of one room (144 sq. feet); one kitchen (64 sq. feet) and an open verandah, all in a single-storeyed structure and the average number of inmates is 4 to 5. No bathrooms are provided.

Ahmedabad Mills Housing Company has built 800 tenements for the workers. Each tenement consists of a room (14' × 12'), a kitchen (12' × 6') and a verandah (7' × 12'). The rent charged is Rs. 4/8 per month. Sanitation, water supply, ventilation and cleanliness are not so satisfactory.

The Textile Labour Association, Co-operative Housing Societies, and other private agencies have also contributed many tenements. The rents vary from Rs. 4/12 to 7/8. In 5,669 tenements there is absolutely no provision for water. Out of 23,706 tenements, 5,360 have no latrines at all. In the remainder, the arrangement is grossly insanitary and inadequate. The following table gives a comparative idea of working class housing condition in three industrial centres of the Bombay State:—

Centre	No. of employers providing Housing	Total No. of Tenements	Single Room	Double Room	3 rooms and more
Bombay	21	4,301	3,354	939	8
Ahmedabad	28	2,749	2,282	467	0
Sholapur	5	1,547	1,238	219	90

Calcutta.—A large majority of workers live in dark, damp, leaky huts in *bustees*. A 'bustee' or native village generally consists of a mass of huts constructed without any plan or arrangement, without roads, without drains, ill-ventilated and never cleared. Most of these villages are the abodes of misery, vice, and filth and therefore breeding places of sickness, disease and death. Many stagnant ponds are found in these *bustees*. The zamindars have built these *bustees* which are an unplanned muddle of single rooms or huts, built *en masse* to utilise the available space to the utmost extent. The size of a room including the so-called verandah is about 80 sq. feet, and it provides accommodation for 9 persons. There is hardly any provision for kitchens. In 83% of cases, the kitchen is located in the bedroom. In 1945, His Excellency the Governor of Bengal, Mr. R. G. Casey, was reported to have said, "I have been horrified by what I have seen. Human beings cannot allow other human beings to continue to exist under these conditions." There are about 4,940 *bustees* in Calcutta, covering an area equal to one third of the city. The population in these localities is over a million.

The quarters provided by the employers are usually near the places of work. The structures, mostly back to back, are normally of brick walls and the floors, brick-paved or *katcha*. Latrines are insufficient and dirty; ventilation is unsatisfactory.

Jute Mill Quarters.—Information obtained by the Indian Jute Mills Association from 61 Mills shows that the percentage of workers housed by individual mills varies from 7.9 to 100 and the total number of rooms and quarters supplied for this purpose comes to about 42,466. The houses provided are either *katcha* or *pucca*, and are usually of the back to back barrack

type, with common verandah, about 3 ft. wide, a portion of which is used as kitchen. It is found that in 94% of the places the floor space available to a worker and his family is less than 100 sq. feet. Generally the rooms are badly lighted and ventilation is altogether inadequate. Sanitary and latrine arrangements are unsatisfactory. In recent years, the Birla Jute Mills Colony has housed about 43% of the employees in *pucca* quarters numbering about 1,200.

Out of the 9,556 Cotton Textile Mill workers, 45 per cent have been housed. The houses consist of one-room tenements built in barrack form, without proper ventilation. Arrangements for water and sanitation are wholly insufficient.

Nearly 40% of the workers employed by the Port Commissioners are provided with free quarters. All the quarters are for single men, and comprise single rooms, about 45 sq. feet and a verandah. They are *pucca* structures with brick walls, tile and corrugated iron sheet roofs and cement floors. Lighting and ventilation are fairly good. So are supply of water and sanitation.

The Indian General Navigation and Railway Company, the Howrah Trading Company, a few of the chemical works, cigarette and glass factories and some other concerns provide houses for a certain proportion of their workers. The density per room is fairly high and ventilation and sanitation are not satisfactory.

Kanpur.—The Improvement Trust has constructed 2,400 family quarters. Each quarter contains one living room (12'×9'), one verandah (12'×7') with a courtyard (12'×7'). Rent is Rs. 4/- per month.

The Municipality also has constructed 208 quarters and about 500 workers live

in them. Single rooms are generally 10'×8' and the verandah 8'×5'. Common Water taps and latrines for males and females separately are provided. In many cases, more than one family occupy a quarter. More than 3,100 quarters have been provided by the employers. The sanitary conditions are not bad.

Some 40,000 workers of Kanpur live in the slum areas called *ahatas*, owned by private landlords. Most of the houses consist of a single room 8'×10' with or without verandah and such dwellings are frequently shared by two, three or four families. About 96% of the workers live in one-room or two-room dwellings. On an average as many as 13 to 15 persons live in each tenement. About 70% of the rooms have each one door only. Fortysix per cent of the families depend on public taps for water. No latrine arrangements exist for 26%, each public latrine having average pressure of 761 persons. Eightysix per cent of the families pay rents below Rs. 3-8-0 per month, while 62% pay between Rs. 1-8-0 and Rs. 3-8-0 per month.

Madras.—Housing conditions in Madras are equally unsatisfactory. Most of the workers live in single rooms with or without a small verandah. There are about 200 *cheries*, of which more than half are owned by private individuals, 26 by the Government, 25 by Corporation and 27 by Trusts. The *Cheries* are small colonies of thatched huts, having no sanitary facilities. In these are quartered about one-third of the population of Madras. A recent survey has revealed that 35 *cheries* where about 15,000 persons live are not provided with municipal water supply. One hundred and thirty-four *cheries* occupied by 183,000 persons have only 460 water taps. Only 12 *cheries* have an adequate supply of taps. In

respect of latrines, 72 *cheries* have none at all, while 109 have 121 latrines with about 1,200 seats. It has been calculated that 19% of the income of the working classes goes for rent. The average size of the hut is 8'×6'. The sanitary conditions are very bad. Mahatma Gandhi described the *cheries* as "a place unfit for human habitation." The *cheries* are built on low lying lands without adequate drainage.

Conditions of housing are markedly superior in the four villages established in Madras by the Buckingham & Carnatic Mills, with about 659 houses. The houses normally consist of a living room, a kitchen, a washing place and front verandah and a yard.

Jamshedpur.—The population of Jamshedpur is about 1,65,000 and the housing accommodation is far short of actual demand. The Tata Iron and Steel Company has so far built 8,428 quarters to accommodate about 34% of their employees. These houses are all *pucca*. All family quarters are provided with a bathroom (4'×4'). In one-room tenements, no separate bathrooms are provided. With the exception of one-room tenements, all quarters are provided with flush latrines and electric lighting, good ventilation and water supply.

Housing in Plantations.—Labour in Tea gardens of Assam falls into two classes: settled labour living on the gardens and bustee labour living in an adjacent village, who work irregularly and at particular seasons. Houses are provided by the planters to settled labour only. Generally the garden authorities arrange the actual building of the houses, but in some cases, labourers build their own houses with the material supplied to them by the garden authorities. When this is done, labour is paid for the time spent in building the house.

There are two main types of housing arrangements. On some gardens, there are barrack lines, i.e., houses are built in a line, though each house has its own separate compound; in some cases, two houses are in the same compound. On some gardens, houses are clustered together in a village, while both systems are in force on others.

There are three main types of houses: (a) Entirely *kutch*a, made of bamboos, plaster and *ekra*, i.e., split bamboo walls, mud floor and thatched roof; (b) semi-*pucca*, of brick plinth, brick walls, for the first few feet, upper part of the wall *ekra* or plaster, corrugated iron sheet or thatched roof; (c) *pucca*, brick or cement plinth, brick wall, metal frame and corrugated iron roofing.

About 90% of the houses in the gardens are of the *kutch*a type. Many labourers, however, prefer the thatched house as it is cooler in the hot weather and warmer in the winter. The average size of a house is 15'×12'. Six persons including children are considered as being the maximum for one house. *Kutch*a houses have generally no windows or verandahs. *Pucca* houses have only one window.

No rent is charged for the houses. Water supply is generally adequate. The most usual method is still by open surface wells. *Kutch*a drains are generally common in the lines and *pucca* drains are a rarity. Ninety per cent of the gardens provide no latrines for their workers. The usual defects of congestion, lack of lighting, ventilation and insanitation are obvious.

In Bengal also, housing is provided on all estates to the settled or resident labour. As in Assam, here also the houses are built in rows. The average size of a house is 225 sq. ft. One house is given to each

labourer and no rent is charged. The roofs are low and lighting is insufficient. There is a complete absence of proper drainage in all the lines in the gardens.

In South India, free housing is provided for all workers other than casual and local labour. The usual accommodation consists of a room 12'×10' or 10'×10' in a block comprising 5 to 10 rooms. In most of the recently built lines in the important tea districts, a kitchen (12'×6') is also provided for every room. Chimneys are provided in the kitchen in the new lines. The new types of houses have roofs of tiles or asbestos sheets. Although most of the recently built houses have kitchens, there is not even a single instance in the tea gardens in South India, where both the living room and the kitchen are allotted to the same family. The general practice on the other hand is to house one family consisting of husband, wife and children in the kitchen and to accommodate two families in the living room. Some people live even in verandahs. Sometimes upto 14 persons live in a room (10'×12'). Water is obtained from springs and latrines are not provided.

The housing conditions in coffee estates are generally bad. Back to back barracks built long ago house the workers. The rooms are 10'×10' or 10'×8' with no windows for light and air. The doors are low and narrow. There are no verandahs. Some newly built houses are of brick and mortar, and the kitchen 12'×6' and the verandah 6'×6'. Bathrooms are not provided. Even pipes for water supply are rarely found on the coffee estates and the workers have to depend on wells and springs. No latrines are provided.

On rubber estates also the quarters are generally built in barracks. The houses are generally provided with large windows.

Six to eight persons occupy a room $12' \times 10'$ or $10' \times 10'$. The houses are built in blocks of two quarters, each quarter having a front verandah, a kitchen and a bathroom. Water taps and latrines are provided. In smaller estates, these facilities are not provided. These estates do not provide latrines. Water supply is generally from open wells, streams and rivers.

Housing in Mining Industries.—The *dhowrahs* or miners' quarters in the coal fields are built usually by colliery proprietors for the purpose of maintaining a minimum permanent labour force required by them.* About 15 to 20 per cent of workers come from the villages nearby and would not stay in the *dhowrahs*. In the colliery *dhowrahs*, 85% of the miners families live in one room houses and 10% in two-room, 3% in three-room and only 2% in four-room houses. A *dhowrah* is often occupied by 12 to 15 persons. The average number of persons living in a room is 5. In Jharia coal fields, there are 29,000 *dhowrahs*, and still they are not sufficient for the workers some of whom come from the neighbouring villages. Taps are very few and so miners have to depend upon wells and streams for water. Rent is not charged.

In the Mica Mines in Bihar, houses are built entirely of bamboo and grass. The houses are $30' \times 8' \times 5\frac{1}{4}'$. The walls are made of bamboos and the roof of green leaves. There are no latrines provided.

By the end of June 1944, the gold mines (Kolar Gold Field) had provided 12,348 huts for their workers. Of these 10,404 are of bamboo thatties, 1,358 in reinforced concrete and 586 in masonry. The huts are either single or double-roomed. They are constructed in lines but are independent. The average number of persons per hut

is 5.25. The lines are electrically lighted and water is laid on at convenient spots. The rent varies from Re. 1/- to 1/4. For a total working population of 30,000, only 215 latrines with nearly 15,000 seats are provided. The condition in these huts is extremely unsatisfactory.

In the iron ore industry also, housing condition is not satisfactory. The average number of occupants in the houses provided is 5. Houses are provided both by the companies and the contractors..

The Madhya Pradesh Manganese Company has constructed some barracks for the workers in the manganese mines. Each room is $10' \times 10'$, with a verandah $10' \times 6'$. Latrines and urinals are not provided in the camps. The housing condition is not satisfactory.

Housing of Railway Employees.—Most of the railway administrations have provided houses to their workers; but more than 75% employed in workshops do not enjoy the benefit of such accommodation. Railway quarters are usually occupied by the other staff. The rent per month varies from Rs. 1-12-0 to Rs. 80/-. The density of occupancy in one room dwellings is highest among the railway workers.

A rough idea has been given above of housing conditions of workers in some major industries in India. It is on the whole very unsatisfactory. A study of working class housing in a few industrially developed countries abroad will serve as a pointer to the lines on which working class housing in India has to be improved.

In England, the Whitley Act of 1924 provides for no more than 8 houses per acre in the agricultural parishes and 12 per acre in the towns. A three-bedroom cottage is being increasingly advocated and

*Dr. R. K. Mukherjee—Indian Working Class, p. 280

considered essential for a normal family. Only for newly married couple or old men whose children have left home is the humble two-bedroom cottage provided. The Town Planning and Housing Act, 1909, made it obligatory on local authorities to construct houses whenever a shortage of houses existed. The Housing of the Working Class Act of 1890 gave powers to deal with insanitary or obstructive houses and localities and provided for the giving of loans to finance the construction of houses by local authorities, public utility societies or individuals. After 1924, subsidy of £9 per year for 40 yds. was granted.

In Germany, Reichstag and the Prussian Diet has spent large sums of money in constructing houses for working classes and in bestowing lavish grants-in-aid, advances and loans to co-operative societies for construction of houses. In 1922 and 1923, new housing acts were passed to regulate rent acts and regulations. But the modern socialistic tendencies induced the Government to promulgate strict regulations with regard to the housing of not only the working class but also of other sections in the community.

The United States of America has thorough-going legislation in practically all the States to regulate construction of new houses and to improve the sanitary condition of the existing buildings. After the second World War, a great number of houses has been constructed in the country.

Canada also progressed with town planning acts in most of the provinces. France, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, Denmark—all the countries have similarly improved their housing conditions. In England, America and practically every other advanced country the living together of two persons or more is considered overcrowding. In Russia, house planning concerns the community

as a whole. In western countries, the growing tendency is to prevent overcrowding of population.

Significance of Housing Conditions in India.—Those who blame our workers for absenteeism do not realise that more than 80% of absenteeism is due to sickness caused by bad housing conditions and under-nourishment. Housing has got a direct bearing on family life and therefore on labour turnover, on sex disparity and on domestic economy. It is hence a determining factor in labour efficiency. One important factor is that the labourer, due to bad housing, is seldom able to keep his family with him. Therefore, he always appears to be home sick. This not only means a proportionate loss in wages but equally affects his efficiency. Moreover, many workers who cannot go home most often go to the prostitutes to satisfy their sexual hunger and consequently suffer from venereal diseases. Due to overcrowding there is no privacy, and segregation between the sexes is hardly possible; hence prostitution becomes common. Bad housing conditions cause lowering of health, morals and standards of living. They also cause high mortality among the working classes. Infant mortality especially is very high in working class areas. This is mainly caused by great congestion and inadequate and insanitary housing conditions. The following table will prove that better housing conditions lessen the infant death rate:—

Effect of housing conditions on infant mortality:

No. of rooms	1936	1937	Percentage of infant mortality in 1936	Percentage of infant mortality in 1937
Roadside	26	29	0.3	0.3
1 Room	7,004	6,823	78.3	78.5
2 Rooms	1,328	1,298	14.8	14.9
3 Rooms	351	319	4.0	3.7
4 Rooms	168	141	1.8	1.7

Causes of bad housing conditions.—Limitations of space and high land values are responsible for much of the congestion in large cities. But these factors have had less influence in the smaller towns. Probably, the most important common feature has been the lack of control over the selection of proper sites for factories. Establishment of factories in central parts causes additional overcrowding. The presence of large numbers of immigrant workers seeking accommodation in the heart of towns already suffering from a shortage of houses creates great problems.

According to Bernard J. Newman, in the social and economic field to which the housing problem properly belongs, there are two groups of causes, firstly those which are predisposing, and secondly those which are exciting. The predisposing causes may or may not produce bad housing, but, if present when exciting causes occur, they tend to create or intensify such conditions. The exciting causes are those which inevitably produce bad housing. Thus, for example, low income is predisposing cause. It becomes an exciting cause when there is an inadequate supply of suitable accommodation which families of low income can afford to rent. High protective tariffs may be predisposing cause. High wages in the construction industry not accompanied by high wages in other industries likewise is a predisposing cause. Each may be contributory to bad housing if other causes are present.

While economic causes force many families to live in slums, yet many of their families would make slums out of good houses, because they are ignorant of the principles of hygiene and know little about the right use of sanitary equipment. Then, prejudice, fears, greed, and nomadic impulses accentuate the housing problem.

Steps taken so far to meet the problem.—It will be pertinent here to consider the steps that have been taken to meet the housing problem in India. In April, 1948, the Government of India as part of their industrial policy, announced a decision to construct one million houses for industrial workers, in 10 years, and to constitute a housing board for this purpose. The Union Government promised to advance two thirds of the capital cost in the form of 25 years loan, free of interest, the remaining one-third to be provided by the Governments of the States, or an employer sponsored by the latter. The standard of housing as well as the areas in which houses are to be constructed would be subject to the approval of Government of India. Both the employer and the worker would contribute towards the cost of housing in the form of rent, the employer being charged a maximum of 3% of the total cost of each of the quarters allotted to his workers, and the worker upto the maximum of 20% of his wage or 2½% of the total cost of the dwelling whichever is lower. In October 1948, a separate Department of Housing was set up in the Central Ministry of Health with the primary function of carrying out Research in housing and helping in the formulation of all-India policy in regard to town planning. Considerable attention has also been paid to the possibility of speeding up construction and reducing costs by the use of prefabricated building material. And it was reported in March 1949, that the Government of India had entered into an agreement with a foreign firm for the setting up of a plant in Delhi for the manufacture of prefabricated houses with a production target of 100 houses per week, each house covering an area of 500 sq. ft. and costing about Rs. 2,500/-. An interesting development in this field in India during recent years has

been the collection of special levy on the products of particular industries to finance welfare measures, including the provision of housing for the workers in those industries. A Coal Mines Labour Housing Board, consisting of two Government representatives and three representatives each of the mine-owners and workers has been set up. The housing programme for the coal mines aims at the construction of 500,000 houses for miners including centralised townships in the major colliery areas in Bihar (31,000) Bengal (15,000) and Madhya Pradesh (35,000). Among the States, Bombay appears to have made the greater progress. In the State, a Housing Board has been set up to develop land, to prepare and execute schemes for the housing of industrial workers and low income groups and to re-organise and develop the building industry. The State Government has in hand a programme for the construction of 125,000 tenements in the main industrial towns in the State, of which 15,000 will be constructed directly by the Government and the rest by the local bodies, co-operative organisations, employers and private builders with Government assistance. Co-operative housing schemes have made considerable progress in the Madras State.

The broad features of the five year programme of the Bombay Government are the abolition of one room tenements, construction of dormitories and hostels for single persons and tenements to suit all sizes of families, and fixing rents to suit the pockets of the low income groups. The different types of tenements proposed to be erected are the following:*

(A) *Hostels & Dormitories*.—In hostels, there will be a cubicle for each person 11.3'X9' in size, having a carpet area of

101 sq. ft. Each room will accommodate 10 persons. Provision will be made at the rate of 60 sq. ft., of carpet area per person.

(B) Tenements for small families, i.e., for family units of not more than two adults and two children. Each tenement will have an area of 195 sq. ft., consisting of a living room of 135 sq. ft. and a kitchen of 60 sq. ft.

(C) Tenements for medium size family, i.e., for family units of not more than 3 adults and 2 children. Each tenement will have an area of 320 sq. ft., consisting of 2 living rooms, 120 & 100 sq. ft., and a kitchen 100 sq. ft.

(D) Tenements for larger families.—The area of each tenement will consist of 444 sq. ft., containing two living rooms of 168 sq. ft. each, and a kitchen of 108 sq. ft. The following table will give an idea of the tenements so far built under the scheme and the rate of rents charged:*

Type	Rent per Month	Percentage of cost of 15,000 tenements.
A	Cubicle 4 Dormitory 2/8	10%
B	8/-	40%
C	10/-	40%
D	11/-	10%

Suggestions for Improvement.—Various methods can be suggested to improve the housing conditions. Each unit or group of units should be provided with open spaces for recreation, dispensaries, small hospitals and maternity homes, nurseries, and creches, educational centres including reading rooms, libraries, radio and cinema. Consumers societies should be formed to meet the workers' needs at cheapest prices. The

State has to bear great responsibility to better the conditions of the workers.

In congested parts of cities, no licenses for the erection of new factories should be given. The Government must have full powers to acquire the land needed for town planning and building purposes. And finally a central trust should supervise the material used and the cost of building. Industrial towns have to be planned deliberately for industrial efficiency, civic beauty and human happiness. The plans must permit extension without distortion, and must provide for the residential section sufficient space to maintain the privacy of family life.

One-room tenements should no longer be permitted to be built either in or outside the city for family occupation and the kitchen should always be separate from the living room.

The workers' houses should in future, comprise two rooms, a kitchen, a lavatory with verandahs on both sides. But, "there are no absolute and universal standards of living and it is impossible to develop such standards".* Because the specific requirements and standards of comfort vary greatly. Principles, such as, "adequate light and ventilation, adequate living space so as to

avoid frictions, which arise from overcrowding, allotment of land sufficiently large for general use by the family and adequate and well designed living space with modern equipment for all functions so as to reduce work and eliminate household drudgery", should determine future housing of workers in this country. At present, the Government, Employers and Labour—all should contribute to accelerate the provisions of proper housing. Further, a regional dispersal of industries and industrial housing is a great necessity. Strict Housing Regulations are also essential to prescribe the maximum height of buildings, their character, depth, structure, ventilation etc., as well as density of houses per acre.

If the worker can be placed in a healthier and more wholesome environment, his thrift and moral restraint will be revived and he will have a new desire for improvement of his standard of living, now repressed by the denial of those elementary attractions and amenities which he associates with his house in the village. Improved housing is the first step towards the improvement of the standards of living, behaviour and morals of the Indian industrial worker. With these will come the conquest of preventable diseases and improvement of health and output of the worker.

*Housing & Employment-I. L. O., 1948.

TRAINING FOR EFFICIENCY

MRS. S. K. BAJAJ

India suffers from a shortage of trained skilled personnel to man the various responsible positions in her industries. This has been mainly due to the fact that no planned and co-ordinated effort has so far been made to impart technical training to workers in the country. While analysing the causes for this situation in India, the author, in this article, makes a comparative study of training programmes obtaining in some industrially advanced countries in the West. A plan for technical training in India is also suggested.

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At a time when India is embarking on a long-range programme of industrial development to stabilise her national economy and increase the national prosperity of her teeming millions, the value, importance and urgency of training of and equipping the rank-and-file workers to fill various positions in industry, can hardly be over-emphasised. During the last quarter of a century or more, India has made considerable strides in the development of her large-scale industries, particularly in the field of cotton and jute textiles, iron and steel, cement, sugar, glass, leather and chemicals. Recent additions to the list of Indian industries are aircraft, automobiles, locomotives, ship-building and the manufacture of machinery and machine tools. Plans for establishing several others are also on the anvil. But the present low standard of efficiency of the average Indian labourer not only constitutes a challenge to the further advancement of industry, but even seems to retard the growth of the existing units, if left exposed to the full blast of foreign competition. Even the cotton textile industry which is a leading industry in India, almost a hundred years old, and which has the peculiar advantage of having on its very door-step ample supply of raw materials, cheap labour and an extensive domestic market, still needs, to be shielded by high protective tariff.

Leading industrialists of India often complain that Indian labour is inefficient,

lacks the power of sustained effort, is given to frequent absenteeism, is addicted to the habit of loitering and wasting time during working hours and is lacking in a sense of discipline. Writing in the Golden Jubilee Souvenir of the Indian Textile Journal in 1940, Sir Homy P. Mody remarked, "The problem for Indian industries..... resolves itself into one of greater efficiency. Indian labour is commonly supposed to be cheap, and if wages in terms of money are alone taken into calculation, there would be justification for the belief. Judged, however, in their relation to a given unit of production, wages in India are definitely high, compared to those in countries with which she must compete. The first condition of further progress must therefore be an improvement in the efficiency of labour".

The level of efficiency of an average worker is far below that of his counterpart in other industrialised countries of the world. At the fourteenth annual meeting of the All-India Organization of Industrial Employers, held in New Delhi, on April 21, 1947, the President, in his address, stated that an average Indian employee did not only produce much less than his contemporary fellow-workers in other countries, but was producing less than what he was doing in the past. In support of his statement, he said, "The productivity of the Indian textile worker is just slightly over $\frac{1}{3}$ of that of his fellow-worker in the U. S. A., less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of that in the U. K.,

and Germany, and less than $\frac{1}{3}$ of that in Japan, Switzerland, Italy, France, and the Netherlands". In respect of colliery labour the output of an Indian miner was said to be less than 20 per cent of that of a miner in the U.S.A., 33 per cent of that of Polish miner, and 26 per cent of that of his counterpart in the Netherlands.

Such opinions usually emanate from individual employers who desire to sweat their labour and keep down their wages. In this country, however, very few time and efficiency tests are taken in order to ascertain the efficiency of the worker. It must be realised that efficiency of the worker does not necessarily depend upon the efficiency of the operatives, but is also largely dependent on the efficiency of the machinery, the lay-out of the plant, the conditions of work and the efficiency of the management itself.

It should, however, be pointed out here that the Indian industrial worker is not inherently defective or inefficient. His present inefficiency, of which so many complain, is more the result of many contributing factors. The worker is under-nourished, badly housed, always in debt and does not keep proper health. An average Indian worker's dietary is inadequate in its calorific value and is ill-balanced. The percentage of expenditure on such necessities of life as food-stuffs, clothing and housing requirements constitutes more than half of his expenditure.

Many have testified to the ability of Indian workers. The Royal Commission on Labour (1931) reported, "One is amazed at the amount of work the ordinary Indian can do on the food one knows, he lives and the conditions under which he exists". If the same training is given and if the same conditions of work, wages, efficiency

of management and of the mechanical equipment are maintained in India as in other advanced industrial countries, there is no reason to doubt that the efficiency of the average Indian worker will be no less than that of his counterpart elsewhere in the world. Plenty of evidence can be quoted to show that Indian labour wherever it has had sufficient training, has proved itself as capable and efficient as American or British labour. A few years ago, the General Manager of the General Motors Ltd., Bombay, stated that given the preliminary training, the Indian labourer was as efficient as the American worker. Thus, the present inefficiency of Indian labour is more due to the lack of training opportunities in the country as well as due to the methods of recruitment and mismanagement by the industrial employers in the country. Hence, what is required in India to day is a countrywide industrial training programme for labour, improvement of their living and working conditions and an overhaul of management systems.

In India, due to the absence of a separate community of industrial workers, it is common practice today in most mills and factories to recruit any raw hand that offers himself for employment, regardless of his experience, background and ability. Possessing an agricultural background and having no industrial bent, the raw and illiterate recruit enters the factory with a certain amount of nervousness and a lack of knowledge of his place in industry. He is put on the job immediately and for a short period of about three to six months, he tries desperately to 'pick up' whatever knowledge he can by the method of absorption without any direct guidance or supervision from a qualified instructor. Invariably, the senior operator from whom the new recruit tries to learn his work is not

himself in any way qualified to impart correct training, and any instruction he may offer will at best be only patchy and not based on any planned system. Therefore, more often than not, the new recruit will learn and perpetuate bad habits and slipshod methods, which would be difficult to correct at a later stage. All these point to the inevitable conclusion that training of operatives on sound and systematic lines is indispensable if a high degree of efficiency in industry is to be attained and maintained.

Training Schemes Abroad.—A brief description of the systems of "training for and within industry" given in some of the other industrialised countries would be instructive here.

Great Britain.—In Great Britain, a system of 'apprenticeship', not very different from that obtaining in India today, provided until recently all the training even in the most highly skilled industries. Technical education in the modern sense was thus absent. With the recognition of the value of scientific knowledge in the field of manufacturing industry, however, technical institutions were established to supplement the practical training provided by the factories and workshops. Thus industrial education in Great Britain now consists of two parts, each of equal importance, in practical training in factories and workshops and theoretical instruction pertaining to the specific trades in evening schools.

On The Continent.—Trade-Schools or Technical Schools operating during the day form the main feature of the European system of industrial education. Admission to these schools is restricted to those who have already served a certain minimum period of apprenticeship in an industry. Several highly organised institutions with well equipped workshops exist in France to

provide a thorough practical-cum-theoretical training in place of the traditional apprenticeship in industry, which prevailed there as in other European countries. Belgium, Bulgaria, Hungary and other countries have similar systems of training so as to increase the efficiency of the industrial workers.

Other Countries.—Some of the other countries are not far behind in this respect. The Argentine Government has adopted a series of measures during the last few years with a view to improving the condition of young persons in employment and providing suitable apprenticeship courses. With a view to co-ordinating economic reconstruction programmes, the Ministry of Economic Affairs of the National Government of China, promulgated on 13th February 1947, Regulations to promote the training of skilled workers. The regulations aimed at the training of 10,000 skilled workers (International Labour Review Vol. LVI 1947, Aug.). The Government also announced on 29th February 1948, a plan for the development of national vocational education as a contributory measure, in the economic reconstruction of the country (International Labour Review LVIII 1948, July). The Government of Egypt has taken steps for the training of Egyptian technicians abroad and is planning to open industrial centres, where facilities for training would also be provided (International Labour Review LVIII 1948, July). Pakistan is also fully alive to the importance of the question. It decided on 13th February, 1948, to establish immediately a Council for Technical Education. In view of the fact that Pakistan was left with a very small number of first-grade technical institutions, it was felt that for a speedy execution of any plan for industrial development, a considerable reorganisation and extension of the existing facilities for technical education was most

urgent. Industries manned by trained and highly efficient staff and workers could alone progress and prosper.

America.—In the United States of America, many of the large industrial corporations, such as, General Motors, Ford Motor Co., etc., maintain their own technical institutes under a highly qualified staff of instructors for imparting theoretical training to their employees. Smaller companies which do not have the resources to maintain their own technical institutions maintain some form of employee-training programme in their plants for imparting both theoretical training under 'laboratory conditions' and practical training under actual factory conditions. Others have worked out 'co-operative' training arrangements with State owned or public vocational schools, technical institutions and universities, of which there is a large number all over the country, where operatives may receive courses of instruction in these institutions after completing their shift in the factory. Practical training in the United States is of two types—"On the job" and "Vestibule" training. In the case of training "On the job", a textile worker, for instance, may be started as cleaner and by a process of up-grading may be advanced from one position to another, until he becomes a spinner, having been trained by close contact with the job. Under the "Vestibule" system, on the other hand, a part of the machinery and equipment is set aside, on which learners may practise, under the guidance of special instructors. The advantage is that this does not interfere with the normal course of production. Each of these two methods has its own merits as well as demerits. The 'Vestibule' system is better suited to large plants with a relatively large number of employees, which can afford to maintain separate training section under full time instructors.

Russia.—Russia, in the first five-year plan, had made provision for training one lakh students possessing university education and equipped them with the knowledge of technology and constructional work. They soon realised, however, that their dependence on foreign technicians was not very safe or profitable. Accordingly, in the second five-year plan, provision was made for two lakh specialists possessing university education, and 4,20,000 specialists from the middle technical schools for the service of industry and rural economy.

Shortage of trained personnel in India.—Indian industry suffers from a great shortage of trained technical personnel. The reason for this is firstly, the great apathy of the Government, and secondly, lack of Indian controlled industrial concerns. The foreign firms did not take any interest in training local men, but imported their superior technical staff from abroad. The Government wedded to the *laissez-faire* doctrine, did not pay any attention to the matter; though it was sometime in 1880 that a resolution was adopted by the Government of India calling upon the Provincial Governments to take action to extend facilities for industrial and vocational training, nothing practical was done.

The World War I brought the question of technical training to the forefront. An Industrial Commission was appointed in 1916 which made valuable recommendations.

When World War II came, India was not at all ready to cope with the colossal task of providing the sinews of war, machinery and munitions. India had neither the resources of industry nor enough engineers and skilled and semi-skilled workers. Hence, special measures were found necessary to

train rapidly a large number of workers for different types of skilled trades.

In January, 1942, the Government of India started the first training centre, the Craik Institute at Lahore, with a training capacity of 70 workers. By the end of 1942, 291 centres came into existence with a training capacity of 24,277. By the beginning of 1943, there was provision to give training to 45,000 workers. The scheme was originally organised to solve the difficulty caused by the dearth of technical personnel for the war effort. Therefore, when in 1943, it was realised that the needs of the army were not so urgent, the number of training centres was gradually reduced from 400 to 170 for financial reasons.

Meanwhile, the ordnance factories had been conducting a training scheme of their own. The number of trainees under this scheme was regulated by the demands of the factories.

The most interesting scheme, however, was the Bevin Training Scheme enunciated, in November 1940, by Mr. Bevin, the then Minister of Labour in Britain. The scheme was meant specially for the working classes. Recruitment was to be made preferably from among men of engineering trades and from among students of technical institutions. It was for the first time that such an arrangement was made to enable the Indian artisans to get higher technical training in the U. K. Still they could not reach the same level of efficiency, as the period of training was only 8 months; and a three-year course had to be covered within that short time.

The combined effect of the work of all these schemes was that India came to possess a number of skilled and semi-skilled workers by the end of the World War II. But,

still it was not adequate to satisfy the country's needs. Nor had they sufficient proficiency in their trades. Moreover, all these training schemes were conceived in the context of wartime needs. Hence, further training became essential to fit them for peacetime industry in India. It was, again, training only in engineering trades. As India has to expand in all sectors of her industries it would be very necessary to have trained men not only in mechanical engineering but also in other manufacturing trades.

The available facilities for technical education and training, whether provided by employers or by Government, may be divided into two types: first, those provided for persons already employed, and second, those open to persons who are raw. For those already employed in factories and workshops, the commonest method is personal study and help from colleagues and supervisors. There are also evening classes or part-time courses. Some Government technical schools have organized such classes primarily for workers in factories and workshops.

Railway workshops have a system of apprenticeship training under which lower grade apprentices are trained for skilled employment as workmen and high-grade apprentices are trained for important posts. Lower-grade apprentices receive their training in the workshops; and if they desire further general or technical education, they have to attend evening classes. The Railways maintain a technical school at Jamshedpur and a Railway Staff College at Dehra Dun.

The extent of facilities provided for the general and technical education of workers varies in different industries. While opportunities for training workmen are very

limited in the textile industry, technical education for the workers has been considerably developed by engineering works, coal mines, and railways. Since 1921, Tata Iron & Steel Co., has maintained a technical institute which provides theoretical and practical training for workers selected for positions in the operating departments of the factory. For the workers in the coal-mining industry, classes are conducted at various centres. Three years evening courses have been instituted by the Governments of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa and higher education in coal and metal mining and kindred subjects is given in university and technical schools.

As regards persons who are not yet in employment, some of the Government technical and industrial schools provide facilities for training of boys and skilled workmen.

Higher education in industry and technology is provided by various schools and colleges, which are either special departments of universities or separate institutions. The number of engineering and survey schools and colleges (in 1935-36) was 17, attended by 3,736 students. Besides these, were 515 technical and industrial schools giving instruction to 28,878 students.

Among the elementary schools set up by factory employers, the most important are those of the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills in Madras, the Empress Mills in Nagpur, the British India Corporation in Kanpur, and the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur. The Royal Commission found that in employers' schools, there was a fairly general tendency to concentrate on half-timers. Without desiring to discourage the work done in such schools, the Royal Commission pointed out that half-timers were rarely able or disposed to benefit by these facilities. It suggested, therefore, that it would be in the interest of the employers

to facilitate the education of workers' children who were not employed and thus help in creating a better class of future workers.

Schools also exist in the coal-fields, but there is no co-ordination and the Royal Commission found that success depended very largely on the attitude of the colliery managers. In view of the fact that children under 13 could not be employed in mines, the Royal Commission suggested that compulsory primary education should be introduced in all coal-fields.

In the light of the foregoing observations, the system of training best suited to Indian conditions can be determined.

The first stage in the training of the younger generation of factory workers should start with general basic education, which should be made compulsory, at best in urban areas for all children, whatever their ultimate choice of profession may be, and should precede vocational training in any one of the specific trades or occupations. Such liberal education, with a definite industrial bias, extending over a period of at least six years is necessary, in order to equip boys and girls with qualities required for the proper discharge of their duties as citizens of the State. In addition to teaching the three R's, the other aspects of education which should receive adequate attention are the formation of character, the development of personality, physical culture and the cultivation of working habits. These qualities are equally essential for a person to succeed in life and to be of use to society. A sense of responsibility, spirit of service and strict adherence to discipline are some of the qualities which should be inculcated in them in their tender years. Special mention is made of this aspect of primary education for the reason that industrial employers, as pointed above, constantly, complain of the

irresponsibility of labour, its indiscipline, and its dilatory habits.

Further, these schools imparting basic education in industrial areas should be equipped with workshops to provide with technical training for boys and girls in different crafts. The scope of these workshops will of necessity be restricted to providing facilities to the children to develop their particular hobbies and to help them in selecting their future vocation under the guidance of their instructors. It should be remembered, however, that the object of these schools should be not to turn out ready made trained labour but to prepare boys and girls for further specialised training, in specific trades and occupations.

After the preliminary basic education the next stage in their training will be to equip them for positions in the various branches of organised industry. Considering the present stage of her industrial development and the limited resources at the disposal of the Government, it may be advisable for India to adopt a system of training more or less similar to the one obtaining in the U. S. A., with modifications to suit her local conditions. In respect of large scale industries, technical institutes should be started and maintained by the large industrial concerns themselves for the benefit of their employees. The curriculum, the course of studies and the duration of training will obviously vary with the nature of each industry.

Therefore, the training programme of each company or a group of companies engaged in similar activities will have to be 'tailor-made' to fit its own requirements. To encourage the establishment of such schools or institutes, the Central Government will have to take the initiative by offering liberal grants-in-aid. They should also

maintain an inspection and direction staff for planning, supervising, trade-testing, and co-ordinating the training activities all over the country in the same way as the Division of Vocational Education and the Apprenticeship Training Service of the Federal Department of Labour operate in the U. S. A. On successful completion of their training, candidates should be awarded certificates of competency, so that, in course of time, the industries may be asked to employ only those holding such certificates.

The training of personnel for small scale (and cottage industries) should be the primary responsibility of the States and Central Governments, which will have to provide vocational schools or polytechnic institutions equipped with workshops for imparting both theoretical and practical training under actual factory conditions.

Trade Unions have not considered this aspect of the labour question at all. They fight for higher wages, shorter hours of work, holidays with pay and so on. They have not submitted a joint demand to the employers or to the Government for provision for proper training facilities for the workers. Trade Unions could organise training programmes of their own for their members—funds permitting. This would indirectly help increase workers' earning capacity. A well trained and efficient labour force will stand a better chance of getting its demands fulfilled. Thus, with the close co-operation of the State and private industry, an efficient system of training for and within industry, may be evolved for turning out a highly skilled and efficient labour force, which would contribute towards national stability by increasing production and towards a higher standard of living, in the country.

LABOUR-MANAGEMENT CO-OPERATION

J. B. SAXENA

Healthy labour-management relations form the basis of industrial peace. Various methods are adopted to build proper relations between workers and employers in the advanced industrial countries of the world. In the following article, these various methods are examined and an estimate is made of their importance in building healthy employer-employee relations.

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Healthy labour-management co-operation in industry is regarded now as one of the surest means of achieving industrial peace and ensuring increased productivity. It will be sound if it rises over and above the organisational structure of the industry. This employer-employee co-operation is now sought to be attained by various means such as profit-sharing, increasing participation by employees in the management of the industry, collective bargaining, joint consultation by means of works committees and others. These methods seek to create in the minds of labour and management an identity of interest in the industry and try to extend the principle of ownership to all connected with it. The advocates of labour-management co-operation hope to develop by these means a feeling of one-ness and mutual interest in the minds of all the partners in the industry.

Profit Sharing.—The oldest form of employee participation is sharing in its profits. The employer agrees to give his employees a share in the net profits of the enterprise in addition to their wages. As a form of incentive to workers, profit-sharing dates back to 1829 in England, 1842 in France and 1870 in the United States. Thus profit-sharing as an incentive to workers has persisted in these countries for over a century.

In instituting profit-sharing schemes, the objectives of management have generally been to promote individual and general

efficiency and develop in the workers a waste-elimination consciousness. It has also sought to create in the employees a sense of ownership and attachment to the industry and give them a feeling of security, thereby reducing labour turnover. Moreover, it has aimed at creating close co-operation and understanding between employers and employees.

Profit-sharing can take several forms. It may be one of cash payments at the end of specified periods, or deferred payment in which case the profits that are divided are placed in a savings account, provident fund or annuity fund or payment in shares of stock. Cash bonus schemes are common in the United States and Great Britain, although deferred participation and stock distribution are also gaining ground of late. Cash payment has been the method of sharing profits but its disadvantage lies in the fact that the employer is not sure of its wise use by workers. Labour prefers this method because bonus is declared at frequent intervals. Cash bonus schemes have comprised about two thirds of the plans introduced in the U. K. and a large percentage of those in the United States, although they appear to have been less satisfactory than stock distribution.

In some establishments, bonus is placed in the account of the employee, from which he can draw at any time on short notice. More often the amount is placed to the workers' credit in a provident or superannua-

tion fund, in which case it is not ordinarily withdrawable while he remains in the service of the firm. It is retained partly or wholly for investment in the enterprise and bears interest varying from 3 to 6 per cent. These savings are returnable to the employee on reaching a certain age, or after the stated period of service, or in an emergency. Usually, workers who leave the service of the company, go on strike, or are dishonourably discharged, are not allowed these benefits, although in some plans, deserving employees who leave on account of ill-health or other good reason receive a part of the savings. This method has not been generally successful in the United States. Because of the more or less indefinite postponement of participation, these schemes have not provided enough incentive.

In some cases, shares of stock are issued to employees in recognition of efficient service for a term of two to five years. A large number of plans provide for the issue of shares to the employees at a price below the market rate, payments to be made in instalments. Under some English schemes, employees holding shares are given a cumulative preferred dividend. In some others, the workers receive dividends without holding regular shares, certificates which are not marketable being given to them. Where shares are issued to employees free or on favourable terms, there is ordinarily a maximum limit to the number of shares set aside for this purpose. In England, the maximum ranges from £250 to £5,000 per person. In the U. S. A., the number of shares allowed each worker differs with different plans, but his earning capacity is the usual basis. The transfer of such shares except to fellow employees is usually prohibited, but the company purchases them in the event of the owner's death or leaving service. Shares purchased by the employees

on special terms do not always carry voting rights. But in both England and the U. S. A., representation on boards of directors is usually allowed to workers holding considerable shares in stock.

Cash Bonuses.—Experience in Great Britain and the U. S. A. has shown that only a small number of workers avail themselves of the opportunity to purchase shares. Cash bonuses on the other hand reach an average of 75 per cent of the employees of the companies with such plans.

The amount of bonus distributed to employees consists of a certain percentage of the net profits of the company in the preceding year, in some cases the distribution is made quarterly or half yearly. Ordinarily the amount to each employee is in proportion to his annual earnings, overtime and piece work being excluded. Allowance is sometimes made for time lost through illness and a reduced bonus is paid to employees with a service record below a certain standard and under a certain age. In England the distribution has ranged from five to fifty per cent of net profits, while in the U. S. A., the amount has averaged at about 12 per cent, of the annual wages. To produce the best results, at least 6 per cent additional income has been found necessary. The most general qualification for participation in profit-sharing plans is a minimum period of service, varying from four weeks to five years, but usually the period is six months or a year. Occasionally employees who have been with the company for less than the minimum period of service one half of the regular bonus or a specified sum, which is usually quite small. Sometimes members of trade unions are denied participation, although in many cases membership in a labour organisation is no bar; in some English schemes membership is compulsory. The provision is often made that employees

shall lose their right to a share in profits if found guilty of unsatisfactory conduct, waste of materials, negligent use of machinery and equipment, irregularity in work or absence without sufficient cause, inefficiency or a breach of discipline.

A noted French economist, Charles Gide, has observed that an even more radical modification of the wage contract than is attempted by profit-sharing would be its transformation into a veritable partnership, giving the worker a share not only in profits but also in administration, responsibility and even losses. This is the aim of advocates of co-partnership, who claim for all the workers participation to some extent in the profits, capital, and control of the industry or business in which they are employed. The Labour Co-partnership Association of Great Britain, which more than any other agency is responsible for the promotion of profit-sharing and co-partnership in that country has given the essentials of co-partnership. It is the duty of the Co-partnership Committee to administer profit-sharing or co-partnership funds, determine wages, hours and conditions of work and adjust grievances and disputes.

How profits are shared.—The method most normally adopted in British schemes has been to pay all ordinary outgoings, set aside reserves, a standard rate of interest on ordinary shares (what is known in the U. S. A., as Common Stock) before any division of ultimate profits takes place. "One of the oldest schemes in England is that of Clarke Nickolls & Coombs Ltd., confectionery manufacturers, which dates from 1890. After all expenses have been paid and reserves made, a dividend of 6% is paid on ordinary shares and 50% of the remaining profits is divided in cash among workers of over one year's service proportionately to their wages and salaries". In the case of

Vauxhall Motors Ltd., (which is associated with the General Motors Ltd.), after 6% has been paid on the capital invested (estimated from the balance sheet according to a definite formula), 10% of the surplus is allocated to workers of over one year's service in proportion to their earnings, with increases upto 25% for those of fifteen years' service or more. Triplex Safety Glass Co., Ltd., allocates 12½% of the surplus after 10% has been paid on the estimated capital of business (on a basis of assets over liabilities) which is divided in a similar way. These examples are cited to illustrate some general principles.

Loss Sharing.—There are few instances in the U. S. A., in which employees who participate in profit-sharing also share losses by creating a sinking fund to cover deficits in poor years. Personally, I do not endorse sharing of losses by employees. There are several reasons why the workers should not be called upon to share the losses. First, profit-sharing is designed primarily for the division of the differential and not the division of risks. Secondly, workers suffer sufficiently in being compelled to forego the anticipated share in profits. Thirdly, loss sharing is very likely to result in injustice, since the losses incurred may be caused not by the lack of effort or efficiency on the part of the workers but by inefficient administration or management. Fourthly, great discontent arises if the workers, after doing their best, find themselves called upon to share losses. It is unfair to require workers to share losses, since they are constantly forced to accept as a normal burden of industry, curtailment of working time, discharge and other conditions that result in unemployment. Fifthly, economic insecurity in modern industry precludes the possibility of the workers assuming a share in the general losses. The workers will not be able financially to make up the deficits of industry and business. Sixthly,

due to various factors, the income of the average wage-earner is insufficient to provide him a decent standard of living; therefore it will be too much to ask him to share the losses too. The responsibility of loss sharing might be practicable and just where the workers are real partners with management and capital, but this is yet far from realisation.

A survey of profit-sharing in many countries indicates that a high percentage of the plans have been abandoned. In the U. S. A. and Great Britain, it has been mainly due to the inability of the concerns to earn sufficient profits rather than to fundamental deficiencies inherent in the system of profit sharing. The same is true of India too today. Numerous specific causes have operated, such as, death of the employer or change in ownership and management (more than 70% of the textile mills in Bombay have changed hands after the last World War); diminished profits, brought about chiefly by depression and hard times, liquidation or dissolution resulting from inefficient management or disagreement among partners concerning policies of administration; and dissatisfaction with the result of the schemes. The majority of profit-sharing plans have been discontinued because the employers were convinced that the results did not compensate for the financial outlay involved or because the employees became dissatisfied and antagonistic. Recent investigations have shown that in more than half of the schemes abandoned, the prevailing cause was apathy, dissatisfaction, or antagonism of the workers. Labour seems to prefer a fixed rate of higher wages that can be relied upon. It is urged that such schemes as profit-sharing are intended to wean away employees from their unions in order that they may not be in a position to bargain advantageously for higher wages, and shorter work day and improved conditions.

Profit-sharing cannot be considered a panacea for all the ills of industrial society. It by no means constitutes a practical substitution for the wage system, nor does it solve the wage problem. As a stimulus to industrial efficiency, profit-sharing has been less effective than piece rate wages and other forms of progressive wage payment. As usually applied, these schemes are paternalistic. No plan originated and administered by the employer alone can solve our industrial problems. Experience in other countries tells us that the problem of industrial unrest has not disappeared from plants that share profits with their workers; indeed in many cases, these plans have accentuated strife.

Suggestion System.—Another system which is sought to bring closer the employer and the employees is known as "Suggestion System". This may be used with or without an organised programme of employer-employee co-operation. If this system has to be successful, a careful follow up by the management is required. A worker having any suggestion has to fill in a suggestion blank, a specimen of which is given below, and submit to the management. After six months or a year, the best suggestion is awarded a prize, which may be in cash or kind.

SUGGESTION BLANK

From :	X.Y. Co. Ltd.	Ref. No.
Suggestion Blank.		
Recd.		S. No. Date
I suggest.....		
.....		
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Name.....Clock No.....Dept.....		
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(Keep this Coupon.)		
Suggested.....		Date S. No.

Trade Agreements.—Trade agreements not only provide a minute description of basic wages, hours of work, rules and methods of discharge but also frequently cover methods of performing operations. These contracts usually prescribe some neutral arbitrator for settlement of disputes. Trade agreements are usually negotiated between union representatives who may or may not be actual workers in the plant, and those of the management or of the trade association which represents the employers affected. Disputes are ordinarily handled by departmental or plant boards on which both the workers and the employers are represented. They may then be referred to a board for the industry as a whole or a regional board, if more than one plant is involved. Finally, some method of arbitration may be provided for. It may be noted that trade agreements are possible only in industries that are highly organised. Workers in these would rather deal through their union representatives than directly with employers.

Works Committees.—Works committees or joint councils, composed of representatives

of both workers and employers are intended to promote labour-management co-operation. The primary purpose of employee representation on the Works Committees is the promotion of industrial goodwill by creating a better understanding of labour by management, and of management by labour. It is also valuable for purposes of personal contact, if the firm is engaged in welfare projects. From the point of view of workers, employee representation gives them an opportunity to formulate and to present their grievances. Again, Works Committees are fairly effective devices for the enforcement of decisions of boards of adjustment or arbitration. The chief objectives of management in furthering employee representation are higher industrial efficiency and greater production. Again, they lessen the chances of strikes, lockouts and other forms of industrial conflict. In brief, management has come to feel that a contented employee is an asset and that a discontented worker is a liability. The actual working and the details about the functioning of the Works Committees in the U. P. for the years 1948-'49 are given in the Tables I, II and III.

TABLE I.—Details about the Functioning of Works Committees in U.P. in 1948.*

Sl. No.	Region.	No. of meetings held.	No. of cases filed.	No. of cases decided.		Total.	No. of cases in which the decisions of Works Committees have been referred to Regional Conciliation Board.	No. of cases in which the decisions of Works Committees have been given effect to by the Industrial Concerns.
				By unanimous vote.	Otherwise.			
1	Kanpur ...	393	1,174	813	211	1,024	52	820
2	Meerut ...	345	880	680	76	756	187	582
3	Bareilly ...	147	410	245	156	401	7	131
4	Agra' ...	110	359	199	162	361	34	213
5	Lucknow ...	213	923	723	126	849	35	624
6	Allahabad ...	60	92	58	Nil.	58	2	20
7	Gorakhpur ...	309	692	398	92	490	102	310
	Total ...	1,577	4,530	3,116	823	3,939	419	2,700

* Figures collected from the records of the Works Committees from the Office of the Labour Commissioner, Government of Uttar Pradesh.

TABLE II.

*Details about the Functioning of Works Committees in U.P. during 1949 (From 1-1-49 to 31-3-49)**

Sl. No.	Region.	No. of meetings held.	No. of cases filed.			No. of cases decided.			No. of cases in which the decisions of Works Committees have been referred to Regional Conciliation Board.	No. of cases in which the decisions of Works Committees have been given effect to by the industrial concerns.
			Brought forward from 1948.	Filed.	Total.	By unanimous vote.	Otherwise.	Total.		
1	Kanpur ...	164	30	418	448	223	125	353	48	201
2	Meerut ...	171	5	395	400	271	23	294	40	180
3	Bareilly ...	66	80	174	254	109	79	188	11	105
4	Agra ...	40	359	98	457	56	42	98	16	56
5	Lucknow...	99	15	339	354	264	24	288	48	207
6	Allahabad ...	42	19	35	54	10	5	15	Nil.	1
7	Gorakhpur ...	170	12	384	396	202	75	278	161	223
	Total ...	752	520	1,843	2,363	1,141	373	1,514	324	973

* Figures collected from the records of Works Committees from the Office of the Labour Commissioner, Government of Uttar Pradesh.

TABLE III.

Matters discussed by the Works Committees in Kanpur Textiles.

No.	Matters discussed by the Works Committee.	Decision of the Works Committee.	
		Unanimous.	Otherwise.
1	The method of payment of wages, time, form of ticket, allowance etc. ...	272	18
2	Dismissal of workers ...	183	95
3	Appointment of Workmen ...	12	—
4	Leave and holidays ...	108	—
5	The distribution of working hours (fixation of shifts etc.) ...	37	—
6	Questions of discipline and conduct as between the management and workmen ...	38	—
7	Settlement of grievances relating to or arising out of terms and conditions in the factory ...	167	—
8	Question of physical welfare ...	96	—
9	Suggestion for improvement in methods and in organisation of works, ways and means of increasing efficiency ...	50	—
	Total ...	973	113

The Works Committees are required to meet twice a month, according to their constitution. In emergencies, they can also meet more often to discuss matters of importance.

From the figures given in the above three tables, it appears that in a short term of two years, Works Committees have, on the whole, proved a success in the U. P. Some States like Bombay and Madhya Pradesh are introducing this system. At present, it is only in sixteen textile mills that Works Committees are functioning in Bombay.

Scope of Works Committees.—Although Works Councils and Committees have a special significance in wartime when employees and management have additional responsibilities, such as, civil defence and fire watching, which can only be expected to work smoothly in an atmosphere of mutual confidence and after open discussion, they are important at all times. If sound relations are to be established within a factory, they should be primarily based on a frank recognition of the complementary nature of the functions of the management and workers in the present industrial system. Recent years have seen an extension of Works Councils, especially in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In many cases, there is a widening of their scope and functions which in itself is evidence of their value in promoting mutual confidence and efficient working within the firm. Indeed, by many the Works Council is regarded as an integral part of the factory organisation.

Works Councils provide a means for representatives of the employers and those of the employees to get together and discuss matters of common concern. They are formed on the basis of agreements between an employer and his employees and differ from trade agreements or agreements between an employer or employers in a given industry

and organised workers within the industry as a whole. Works Committees consider questions of shop rules and grievances, and in addition they often handle matters of efficiency of operation and at times of policies.

The Works Council provides an organised channel through which grievances may be brought up and promptly considered. For instance, the workers of a given department may feel that the time-clock is inaccurate or needs repairs and the foreman may not take prompt action. If the matter can be brought before a Shop Committee or Works Council the time clock will without question be repaired immediately. If the power of Works Councils is extended beyond considering mere routine rules and grievances, the Council together with the personnel department may well handle matters of discharge. Rules relating to causes of discharge may be formulated by the Works Committee and then administered by it. All cases in which, after conference between the foreman and the Personnel Department discharge has been decided upon, can be brought before the Council on request by the employee affected. Such procedure will do much to make the workers feel that they are indeed partners in the enterprise.

When lay-off is necessary, the Works Council can determine most satisfactorily just which of the workers should be affected. Some plants have developed the idea of presenting to Works Committees such matters of basic policy as the production schedule in as much as this directly affects the amount of work available. This procedure would certainly be not advisable until the Works Committee has been in operation for a long time and an experienced group of workers' representatives, able to appreciate the manufacturing and economic conditions involved are available. Works Committees may well consider routine matters relating to pro-

duction, such as, quality, salvage of scrap, safety and general working conditions. To be effective, meetings of Works Committees must be regular and at short intervals.

Such matters as working conditions, accident prevention, health, education, social and recreational activities, discipline, absenteeism and late coming, efficiency suggestions, grievances, salvage and avoidance of waste, and other questions relating to wages and hours of work can be discussed by Works Committees. There should be no hard and fast rule whether the Works Committees should be consultative or executive bodies.

Functions.—The main functions of Works Committees are social, technical, economic, and financial.

Social Functions.—These are twofold. Together with the management, they consider methods of developing a spirit of co-operation within the undertaking and of improving the conditions of work and life of the staff. Secondly, they supervise or administer the social institutions of the undertaking. It will be beneficial to consider how Works Committees function in some other countries.

France.—French law confers no powers of decision upon Works Councils. Their duties are merely "to make suggestions concerning, for instance, a possible better arrangement of hours of work, the fixing and rotation of annual holidays with pay, the equipment of the presses, conditions of health and safety and even, since 1946, certain aspects of wages".

Belgium.—In Belgium, Works Councils have the right to fix the dates of annual holidays and if necessary, to introduce a system of rotation, to draw up and amend general rules of employment within the framework of relevant legislation; to which over the administration of social and in-

dustrial legislation for the protection of the workers and to consider the general principles to be observed in regard to the engagement and dismissal of workers.

Austria.—Works Councils look after the general protection of the workers' interests and of observance of collective agreements and social legislation. According to Austrian legislation, Works Councils (composed solely of representatives of the staff) have also important functions in connection with the termination of contracts of employment.

Social Services.—In Belgium, Works Committees are responsible for administering all the social services established by the undertaking for the welfare of the staff, unless such services are administered independently by the workers themselves.

The Austrian Works Councils have the right to create and administer provident funds and other funds for promoting the welfare of the workers and their families, and they may share the administration of any such funds set up by the owner of the undertaking.

Technical Functions.—Works Councils play an advisory part in the technical sphere. This is analogous to the part played by the production committees. The French law entrusts the Councils with the duty of proposing regard to such workers as are deserving, whose initiative or proposals have rendered their co-operation particularly valuable to the undertaking.

Financial Function.—In the financial sphere, the functions of the Works Councils are in certain cases purely advisory; in other cases, they extend to supervision or even to direct participation in management.

In the first place, they are required to give their opinion and make suggestions on all important measures likely to affect the organization, administration and general

operation of the undertaking. French law goes so far as to state explicitly that in this sphere the Works Councils should be 'compulsorily consulted', but this does not mean that they have a right to oppose the employer's decisions. The Council must also be informed of the profits made by the undertaking and it may make suggestions concerning the use of such profits; it may also give opinion on price increases and may be consulted by the Government for price-fixing and control.

In Belgium, the Works Council auditor has to certify that the factory's accounts are correct. During the meeting at which the documents are considered, the Works Councils may call upon the services of an R. A. or C. A. at the expense of the undertaking.

In Austria and France, the Works Councils of limited liability concerns have the right to appoint two or three members to sit on the Board of Directors; in France, only in an advisory capacity, in Austria with the same rights and responsibilities as other directors.

Limitation of Employee Participation.—Employee participation is not a panacea for all industrial ills. Indeed it is more a preventive method than a curative one for labour disturbances. It may only tend to reduce industrial conflicts. It cannot be expected to produce immediate and lasting results, for it takes time and study to develop skill and competence on the part of management and loyalty and confidence on the part of workers.

The success of employee participation is dependent on intelligent labour leadership

as well as in the sympathy and vision of employers. Great precaution should be taken in the introduction of any such schemes. Many have failed because they were applied without previous attempt to create a sentiment in favour of them among the workers.

Employee participation offers no royal road to industrial peace. No employer should suppose that merely by installing some system of shop representation he can be sure of industrial harmony and increased production. Doubtless there will be failures where the plan is adopted as a panacea. It is only one of many means and only sincerity of purpose, frank dealing and establishment of common interests will bring about mutual advantages.

Conclusion.—In the last few pages, the working of the various schemes which tend to bring management and labour together in harmony have been discussed briefly. In order to create co-operation and a spirit of working for mutual benefit, no one scheme will be enough. If, however, these schemes are worked with a humanitarian spirit and with respect towards each other, much of the industrial unrest can be removed and harmonious relations established.

If Works Committees have to be effective in improving production, then they must be integrated with collective bargaining machinery. To be successful, they must be established in those industrial units in which collective bargaining has been accepted by the management. Representatives on such Committees must be responsible union officials at the plant level and responsible management officials who have the authority to take decisions.

LABOUR WELFARE

M. V. MOORTHY

Labour welfare which forms part of the wider industrial problem is today attracting the attention of both the Government and the public in India. Various programmes of labour welfare are already in existence and new ones are being planned. Dr. Moorthy analyses this problem from a new angle and says that no programme of labour welfare will be effective unless the authorities recognise the labourer as an individual with a personality and as a member of a larger family and community. He also suggests various methods by which labour welfare can be effectively organized in future India.

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Labour Welfare tomorrow, or in the immediate future, will have to be based on the conditions of today. The approach to this problem, as to all such problems, can be many-sided. It can be Utopian and idealistic, liberal or revolutionary. A scientific approach is possible if the present is properly and adequately explored and analysed, and future trends are determined to guide planning. In attempting to suggest the best possible programmes for labour welfare in the immediate future, the problems must be approached practically and factually without any political bias or undue enthusiasm for any 'ism'. Yet this outlook is not opportunistic or purely utilitarian; it will neither leave ideals out of consideration, nor fail to suggest radical alterations in outlook, methods and programmes. In the scientific treatment of a problem, it is possible to eliminate theoretically the impossible, and discuss the possible in terms of real conditions and circumstances. Behind this scientific outlook remains an unalloyed and absolute desire to reach only one uncompromised objective, the real welfare, happiness and benefit of labour.

What is Labour Welfare.—Labour Welfare work is associated, on the negative side, with the counteracting of the baneful effects of the large-scale industrial system of production, especially capitalistic, so far as India is concerned, on the personal, family and social life of the worker. On its positive side, it deals with the providing of opportunities for the worker and his family

for a good life as understood in its most comprehensive sense. This personal objective alone is not adequate. Labour welfare is also fundamentally in the interest of the larger society, as the health, happiness and efficiency of each individual connotes the general well-being of all. Taken thus, labour welfare is an essential part of social welfare. It means the adjustment of the labourer's work-life and family-life to the community and social life around.

The Need for Labour Welfare.—The industrial system of production, as at present organised, is full of harmful effects on the worker's life and actively interferes with his normal well-being and legitimate participation in social life. Indeed, it requires not many arguments to demonstrate that our labourer is ill-paid, under-nourished, works for long hours under nerve-racking and unhealthy conditions, inhabits dark and dismal quarters, and lives his leisureless and sickly life in want of knowledge and recreation. His is a life not only unknown to fortune and fame, but unknown likewise to joy and beauty. When we add to this the fact that most of our industrial workers are drawn from their simple rural homes and are not yet completely acclimatized to their urban surroundings, the situation assumes tragic significance. They arrive in hope and stay with pessimism. Losing their old zest in life they develop new complexes. Across the brief channel of their life they pilot their weak vessels in perpetual storm.

The maladjustment, handicaps and ill-health of the vast industrial population, which was rapidly increasing, and which has multiplied many-fold during the War and will continue to grow still further and faster as India is now determined to be industrialized, have seriously impaired national health. This neglect of the worker has been mainly responsible for the industrial backwardness of the country, and if the genuine welfare of the worker is not dealt with by the State in co-operation with the employer, then it will be idle to hope for speedy national progress which is demanded by all sections of the people. It is time that these evils are neither consciously perpetrated nor perfidiously upheld by the capitalists.

Impersonalization of relationships is inherent in modern factory economy. It leads to lack of understanding between the employer and the workers, to suspicion on the part of the latter and callousness in the former. The much-talked-of lowness of the wage and the consequent miserable standard of living of the worker is nothing but the result of the employer's loyalty to competitive individualistic economy, which treats the worker as a pair of hands and nothing besides. With rationalization processes and a score of other "scientific" perpetrations, the worker is being looked upon as a unit of energy complementing the power of the machine. His motions are marked out, fatigue is figured, and output is fixed. His efficiency is graded and he is paid according to his "ability". In the interests of his health and work, he is advised to consume so many numbers of calories per day. The worker is treated as a calory-consuming and energy-expending apparatus to be used for purposes of production.

This treatment of the worker as a commodity is not the only result of modern

factory economy. A factory concentrates thousands of workers and it is natural for these to want to live in the neighbourhood of their work-place. House rent, in the hands of avaricious landlords, naturally rises and hence the workers either share rooms and rent with friends or live in cheap jerry-built constructions. Having neither knowledge of sanitation nor the means to live cleanly, they soon convert their habitations into slums and become naturalized to filthy lives. In cities, where thousands of factories are situated closely, the problem of labour housing becomes aggravated. Entire areas are rapidly turned into slums. While admitting that other factories also engender slum life, it may be asserted that slums are the results chiefly of industrialism. These slums are not created by avaricious and anti-social land-lords only; housing facilities created also by the government, the municipalities and even well-meaning employers have lacked bare human considerations. Neither principles nor ideals nor knowledge have guided their construction. The inhumanity and ignorance of the State and its branches have been more glaring and tragic than the inevitable selfishness and profit-motive of the landlord.

Now these dismal facts, which appear to flow from the structure of modern industrialism, render it difficult for the worker to make his life decent and dignified. His life is full of crowded hours; and belonging to a too numerous fraternity the labourer has lost his individuality in the mass. In the face of the overwhelming demands of the machine there is danger of his being dehumanised. Hence the need for a new vision, a new understanding, a new-outlook and a new plan.

Labour Welfare in India.—Labour Welfare work in India has not a long history. Therefore, it has not yet had time to develop

any technique, nor define its scope and activities. In the early years of industrial development, whether in plantations or in docks, no attention was given to the amenities of labour. The very newness of machine production, the anxiety incidental to the initial marshalling of capital resources, the consequent speculation, the getting of raw material, the capturing of markets, the fighting of foreign and native competition, the making of adjustments with an unsympathetic government,—these were some of the factors which, perhaps naturally enough, engaged the chief interests of the capitalists and led to the neglect of labour welfare and interests. Consequently, labour was characterised by long hours of work, low wages, appalling insanitary working and living conditions and absence of any facilities.

These intolerable conditions led to labour investigations which resulted in the passing of a series of statutory regulations (Factory Acts, Mine Acts, etc.) to control living and working conditions as well as the payment of wages. The scope and object of these Acts have been gradually extended by amendments. And new Acts like Workmen's Compensation Act, Maternity Benefits Act, Payment of Wages Act, etc., have been passed to define and enforce the responsibilities and duties of employers towards their employees. While these Acts have mitigated some of the extreme hardships of the workers, it must be admitted that they only seek to obtain the minimum benefits for them. Moreover, our labour legislation is still dominated by sterile legalistic concepts and contractual view of labour. The statutes have many lacunae and loopholes of which the employers frequently take advantage. Also, they do not provide for efficient supervision and enforcement of the conditions they lay down. Labour legislation in India has timidly touched only

certain aspects of labour problems; it has yet to assume a positive and more comprehensive role.

This is not to imply that nothing more than what is demanded by the Labour Acts has ever been undertaken by any of the Indian employers for the benefit of their workers. Housing and dispensary services, to at least a small portion of their workers, were amongst the earliest benefits provided by many large Factories, Municipalities, Railways, Ports, Mines and Plantations. For a long time, the provision of any other amenities was considered to lie beyond the scope of labour management. Very rarely was the welfare of the worker's family included in the programme. Gradually, wherever labour colonies were built away from the general population of the town or the city, elementary educational facilities of some sort were provided for the children of the labourers. The experiment in labour colonies in Nagpur, Kanpur, Calcutta, Madras, Madura and in a few other places has brought out the need to treat the labourer and his family as one unit for purposes of welfare measures. Nay, in a well-established labour colony the entire labour community so settled has to be treated as one unit. For the industrialist who creates a labour village becomes responsible to a great extent, if not wholly, for the sanitary, educational, recreational and civic amenities of the people. At this stage, labour welfare becomes transformed into problems of civic welfare as in cities like Jamshedpur. The creation of labour colonies in our country marks an important epoch in the history of labour welfare in particular, and in industrial life in general. It has enlarged the scope and possibilities of labour welfare. It points the direction which our labour welfare should take in future.

Labour welfare work in India is yet feeling its way; its past history is a colossal and costly failure; and the future must be based on new principles, new outlook and new techniques. The failure of labour welfare work in the past is largely due to five factors: (a) lack of sincerity and of a scientific outlook, (b) the unhelpful attitude of the employers, (c) the suspicious attitude of the workers, (d) the inadequate relation of the State to Labour Welfare and (e) the dearth of well-trained social workers.

In many cases labour welfare was carried out with a desire to curb the growth of the Trade Union movement and to conciliate labour. Even when social welfare was undertaken by kind, generous and humane employers, the attitude and outlook of charity and philanthropy, so widespread owing to the influence of religion in India, prevailed. There was no thought of such welfare being an integral part of their responsibility, an obligation they owed to the workers in the very act of employing them. Hence no systematic and allround betterment of the latter was undertaken. When labour welfare was made legally compulsory on the employer, it became a coercive burden on his unwilling shoulders and token welfare programmes were carried out to fulfil the mere letter of the law. Even where Labour Welfare Officers were appointed, their duties and functions were only remotely connected with the real welfare of the workers.

Many welfare programmes were recently carried out by employers on account of the war-boom and the employer's preference for the welfare of his workers to returning his profits through the Excess Profits Tax to an unsympathetic and alien government; but such opportunistic patriotism can serve the worker only for a time, and there is the greater danger of the worker being driven to his old miseries and the lower standards of living now that the war boom is over.

Very few employers have yet accepted labour welfare-work as an indispensable part of industry. They hold that beyond the receipt of the wage—and may be a few occasional gratuities—the worker is not entitled to any other benefits. Industries cannot bear the burden of additional charges. Even if they can, it is not an investment, for the returns are not even commensurate. As a business proposition, labour welfare work is indeed a liability. The employers have contracted with labour to pay for the pair of hands. If behind the pair of hands, there is a personality to be cared for, the State should provide for its growth. If and when the industries can afford, the employers may start welfare work as a philanthropic endeavour.

It is futile to criticise this attitude of the employers. It is the result of competitive individualistic economy. It claims profits and disclaims responsibilities. The workers' suspicion and hostility towards their employers appears to be a reaction against the unhelpful attitude of the employers in general. The workers naturally look with suspicion on the welfare activities of their employers as a clever ruse to disrupt the solidarity of labour forces. They resent nothing so much as a show of charity towards them by their masters; nor is it fair for the latter to treat their employees as beggars or even as children. Indeed, in such an atmosphere of mutual distrust, welfare work can least succeed. It is misconceived by the employers and misconstrued by the employees. The half-heartedness of the employers and the want of response on the part of the workers is a great deal responsible for the failure of labour welfare work.

The dearth of trained welfare workers is another factor which has contributed to its failure. Neither the employers, nor the

workers, nor even the general public have an appreciation of the importance of scientific welfare work. Trained in the traditions of individual charity, India is slowly realizing the role of institutional social work, group social work and individual case work. Persons who have managed labour welfare had neither the requisite knowledge of human nature and labour conditions, nor training in the techniques of welfare work. There are exceptional cases where able officers have been appointed. But, generally speaking, labour welfare management has been in the hands of raw personnel. In the hands of untrained personnel, it is nothing surprising that labour welfare work should have failed of its essential purpose. We must also state it here that the employer, having himself no notion of the legitimate scope of welfare work, has saddled the unfortunate labour officer or his assistants with a vast range of vague and unco-ordinated duties, bewildering in their variety and onerous in their execution.

It is true that the Central Government and various Provincial Governments have sponsored Labour Legislation and gradually demanded of the employers the introduction of more and more activities for the benefit of labour. And yet, an alien government, not based on adult franchise and mainly representative of various vested interests, especially of the employers of labour, will always remain under the charge that it can be only hustled by the clamour of public opinion and the fear of organised labour, and it will never be inspired by a genuine realisation of social justice and the bare rights of man.

Besides, labour welfare under State inspiration has proceeded slowly and unscientifically. Both legislation and practical action have been haphazard, illogical and ill-planned. Where labour welfare has been directly

sponsored by various governments, the activities have been generally ill-mannered and the financial contribution almost niggardly and entirely inadequate. Any scientific planning of labour welfare could have foreseen the need of extensive leadership of the right type and training; but measures for the creation of this leadership have been totally absent. The fundamental principle of social welfare that "Action should follow knowledge" has never been applied by the State for the promotion of labour welfare.

This brief sketch of the history of labour welfare work in India is given to show on what foundations a new structure, conducive to the real welfare and interest of millions of workers can be built. The picture is in no way inspiring. Indeed, there are many who would suggest a complete eradication of the past to build an entirely new future. Such a radical remodelling of the scheme of things can only follow a total revolution. In the immediate future, the threads of the past must be taken up, and loose threads must be replaced to make a coherent pattern. Details of previous programmes must be fitted into new and comprehensive outlooks, careful planning, and scientific methods devised to reach clear and definite objectives.

The Labour Welfare Programme of tomorrow must first determine precisely whose responsibility it really is to provide for the welfare of the working class. The problem of agency is all important. Who is to take the initiative and lead, shoulder the responsibility and bear the cost? Labour welfare agencies whose scope of work is more or less similar, fall into five general types: (1) those conducted by the Employers; (2) by the Government; (3) by Local Bodies; (4) by Public Organizations; and (5) by Trade Unions. It is not possible here to investigate into the principles guiding these, or the techniques adopted by them, nor even to

evaluate in detail the achievements and failures of each. It can be stated that in India the State has already shouldered the responsibility, and this is a step in the right direction. Employers, municipalities and political bodies will have to play their part, but the eventual leadership must remain with the Labour Welfare Departments of the Central and Provincial Governments. These Departments must provide the legislation and initiate, direct, guide and even supervise the work of the Welfare Department set up by the employers in each factory. A Labour Welfare Department in the charge of a Personnel Officer helped by a welfare staff has become an inevitable adjunct to every big factory.

The Department functions to prevent the disintegration of the worker's personality and help him to keep himself adjusted to his surroundings. This is the main objective which justifies the existence of the Labour Welfare Departments. In doing this, the Departments counteract the harmful effects of industrialism on the life of the worker and offer him facilities to make the best possible use of his new environment.

Motives of Welfare Work.—It may here be mentioned that three main considerations may enter into the undertaking of welfare activities: (1) to placate labour; (2) to make labour efficient and industry profitable; (3) to help the worker realize his personality and equip him to become a citizen worthy of his society. Welfare work undertaken to placate labour is the worst kind of all. All such welfare work is inspired by the anxiety to conciliate and win over labour. It is foredoomed to failure though for a while it may show an appearance of success. It cannot succeed because it lacks the essential principle and spirit of welfare work. Its motive is mercenary. It is conceived and carried out in anxiety. All welfare work to

placate labour disunites and degenerates workers.

Regarding the other consideration of making labour efficient through welfare work and thus making industry profitable, the motive must be confessed to be not noble, unless the efficiency merely logically follows as a result of the welfare programme and the consequent happiness and intelligence and sense of security that the worker feels in his life. The work cannot succeed long if the employers merely calculate on the returns of this undertaking. In works of human welfare, results are bound to be slow and not easily obvious. True, the result of welfare work can be readily witnessed in healthy bodies and happy faces of workers; but the results, nevertheless, are intangible and their success or failure depends on several other factors and are bound to be misleading. Even if efficiency is demonstrable in a short time as a result of labour welfare work, that should not be made the only motive of welfare activities. It needs no argument to prove—and our industrialists need no such assurance—that welfare activities are ultimately bound to raise the efficiency of the workers and place industry on more secure footing.

The final and real motive,—that of helping the worker to overcome his hindrances and handicaps and realise the best life and make himself an asset to society and a fit instrument of creating a healthy and useful race—is the only possible and laudable purpose that can justify welfare work. Such an outlook treats the worker as a human being and an end in himself, a healthy, happy and creative unit of a healthy, progressive and creative society.

Planning labour welfare presupposes the acceptance of certain conditions which constitute the principles of welfare work. Welfare work can flourish only in an atmosphere

of mutual trust and good-will. Its success rests on the participation of the workers for whose benefit it exists. They can participate whole-heartedly when they have confidence in the government which represents the State and appreciate the sincerity of the employer. As a first step, therefore, the employer must disburden his age-old illusion and mentally accept labour welfare work as a most necessary part of industrial management. The part which labour plays in production—as important as, if not more than that played by capital—should be at once recognised. Industries have now reached a stage when they are no longer individual concerns but national assets. We must have a more rational and, at the same time, human understanding of the dignity and destiny of industries. If industrial concerns have to fulfil their useful function and play their part as national assets, they must also function as social service agencies, at least as far as their workers are concerned. In the future India, every industrial unit must be a social service agency for its workers. The two ideas, “industry” and “social service”, must be inseparable. Industry is an institution; social service is another institution. Both these must coalesce and function as one in the new social economy. Thus viewed, welfare work becomes, in its most comprehensive significance, an inevitable and indivisible part and function of industrial life. The role of industry is no longer a purely economic one, but a social one. Welfare work is an organic part of the industrial body. And the assumption of responsibility for the welfare of the worker is a legitimate function of industry. The exercise of this organ, this faculty, this function will certainly lead to the health and vitality of industrial life. The idea of an industrial institution functioning also as a social service institution is a new philosophy which our industrialists should accept. Then

only labour welfare work can be liberally and sincerely planned and based on sound and lasting ideals. Even an efficiently planned welfare programme, concerned with the correct motives, cannot prove successful unless consideration is given to some fundamental aspects of the worker's life in its industrial bearings.

Basic Background for Successful Welfare Work.—Mention has already been made of important obstacles to welfare work inherent in the present economy. No factors are more insidious in their operation than low wages and want of leisure on the part of workers. A detailed discussion of wages is beyond the scope of our present subject.

Low wages can never enable the worker to maintain the decent standard of life which is aimed at by the welfare programme. If labour welfare is the constructive plan for the betterment of the life of the worker, low wage provides that destructive element which will annihilate the benefits of that welfare programme. Besides low wages, which in turn mean bad housing, malnutrition, bad health and neglect of disease, inadequate care and education of children and indebtedness will unnecessarily add to the demand of more welfare work, and more expense to undo the ravages caused by low wages. It can be generally stated that unless the principle of the minimum wage—to include decent housing, adequate nourishment and clothing, cost of transport cost of medical relief, education and recreation for all the members of the family—is accepted, welfare work can hardly succeed in its mission.

Touching leisure, we may only mention that the workers must be emancipated from their present drudgery if they have to realise the life beautiful. All culture is based on the free and creative utilization of leisure. It is well said that slaves have no leisure;

and it may be added that want of leisure creates slaves. All older civilizations were the creations of aristocracies which believed in exploitation, in leisure for the few and slavery for the many. On the slavery of the many the leisure of the few was based. Behind all the culture of the ancients were the hunger and groans and overwork of thousands.

Democracy has uprooted the theory of leisure for the few and labour for the many. Science has put in the hands of man instruments to emancipate him from thralldom. It has made leisure possible for all. If humanity is faithful to its new philosophy, it must at once release man from overwork, and provide the optimum opportunities for and release of the impulses of the masses. Masses must become real participators and creators of human culture and civilization. The positive object of welfare work is called into service for the very reason that the worker has no time to look after his own welfare; and that a leisured person can easily look after his own welfare. This view is based on a false philosophy of welfare work. It satisfies itself with canteen services, medical treatment, propaganda and gratuities. Such welfare work cannot take root. Welfare work does not mean catering to the needs of workers; it implies the kindling of worker's interests in various healthful life activities. The welfare department will train the worker to utilise his leisure creatively. The abolition of night shifts and the introduction of the 40 hours week, with enough holidays and leave with pay, are imperative to give the workers just enough leisure to devote their time to human life, to education and cultural life, recreation and social life.

Leadership for Welfare Work.—The welfare personnel constitute the leadership of welfare work. They are the moving spirits of welfare activities. Therefore, they have

to be selected with great care and impartiality, with special regard to qualifications required for their functions. The personnel should be composed of honest and brave men and women, persons who have vision to design and independence to execute. It is most fundamental to realise that Welfare Officers are social engineers.

Qualifications of a Personnel Officer.—

Appointment of trained welfare personnel is a pre-requisite for successful planning. Welfare work is an art which works with the instruments of science. It cannot be left to laymen. The persons in charge of welfare work should be those who have a profound knowledge of economic conditions and principles. Besides, they must have an understanding of human psychology. They should be able to judge independently motives and actions of individuals and groups. They should be capable of tactfully, sympathetically and boldly meeting situations as they arise. Thus, for instance, an industrial strike creates a psychological situation. It is only persons who can quickly grasp the complex workings of the human mind and anticipate trends that can be helpful in solving the problem.

It is well said that the Personnel Officer is the liaison officer between the employees and the employers. He keeps contacts between the workers and the management and cements the relationships of the two. He interprets the problems of the one to the other and bring about sympathy and understanding. By infusing faith and confidence in either, he kindles cooperation between the two. The Personnel Officer is greatly responsible for this spirit of cordiality between the parties. He is there to neutralize the effects of impersonalization in modern industries. In one word, he stands for the workers so far as the management is concerned,—representing the human interests

of both sides. This does not mean that the Personnel Officer represents the managements in all the particulars of business. No; his province extends only as far as the welfare of the workers is involved; from recruitment to conditions of work, promotion and dismissal, recreation, housing, health and education. The fundamental objective of the Personnel Officer is to make the life of workers happy and healthy. It is essential that the Personnel Officers of tomorrow should have an adequate knowledge of law; because the State is assuming a more and more positive role as regards social legislation, and many a situation would arise when the Personnel Officer would be called upon to explain the legal position to the workers as to the management. A Welfare Department should have as its head and leader a Personnel Officer who should be a person well trained in (1) Social Economics and Statistics; (2) Psychology; (3) Sociology, Theoretical and Applied; (4) Law and (5) Philosophy.

Possessing these academic qualifications, it can be said that the Personnel Officer is primarily an administrative and executive official. As such, his organising ability, efficiency and temperament should be outstanding, so that he is able to command, control and befriend the most important asset of an industry—the labour population.

In the extensive Labour Welfare Department of a modern industry, there are many other officials who are needed to fulfil duties of leadership and responsibility. The chief of these will be the Labour Officers in charge of Departments, the Medical Officer, the Women and Child Welfare Officer, the Physical Director, the Education Director, the Superintendent of Housing Administration and Management and the Family Case Worker. Under these officers will work an efficient staff of supervisors, instructors, statisticians and clerks. The special officers

will naturally possess requisite qualifications and experience to fulfil their duties with ability, responsibility and initiative. While much depends on leadership provided by the personnel, welfare work cannot succeed unless the scope and activities of each officer are fairly well-defined. Welfare work has a definite function to fulfil and since it works through a definite body of officials it should be clear about its field of activity. The techniques of welfare work that are to be adopted also depend on the specification of the province of work. Indeed, the visualising of the perspective of one's work and authority is the first step in efficient administration.

The Royal Commission on Labour in their Report (1931) suggested the appointment of a labour officer for factories, such officer to be in charge of workers' welfare, besides being responsible for engagements and dismissals of staff. In pursuance of this suggestion, almost every large factory today has its own labour officer. Where there is no specific appointment made of the labour officer, the welfare activities of the factory are usually conducted by a general committee composed of the members of the management. The smaller factories have neither labour officers nor welfare activities.

Scope of Labour Welfare Work.—It is somewhat difficult to accurately lay down the scope of labour welfare work. Welfare work is a comprehensive term. When it is applied to a flock of sheep or a herd of cattle, it is easy to perceive the field of work and suggest a programme. But labour is composed of dynamic individuals with complex needs. In a world of changing values where ideologies are undergoing rapid transformation, rigid statements about the field of welfare work are bound to be revised from generation to generation. Moreover, labour welfare work is increasing with increasing opportunities and needs to meet varying

situations; it is also increasing with the growing knowledge and experience of techniques. An able welfare officer would include in his programme whatever activity would conduce to the well-being of the worker and his family. He would work on existing programmes as well as initiate new ones. The test of a welfare activity is that it removes, directly, any hindrance, physical or mental, of the worker and restores to him the peace and joy of living.

Welfare activities fall into three categories: (A) Welfare activities inside the Factory or the workplace, (B) Those outside the Factory or the workplace, (C) General Welfare Measures. Welfare work embraces the workers, his wife and children. The following list, which is by no means exhaustive, gives the items under which welfare work should be conducted inside and outside the work-place. The items which specifically refer to workers' children and wives are also indicated. The list includes general welfare measures.

CONDITIONS OF THE WORK ENVIRONMENT:

1. Workshop Sanitation and Cleanliness:
 - (a) Temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting, elimination of dust, smoke, fumes and gases.
 - (b) Convenience and comforts during work, operatives' posture, sitting arrangement, etc.;
 - (c) Distribution of work hours and provision for rest times, meal times and breaks;
 - (d) Workmen's safety measures.
2. Factory Sanitation and cleanliness
 - (a) Urinals and lavatories; (b) Bathing facilities; (c) Provision for spittoons, water disposal, disposal of wastes and rubbish, general cleanliness; (d) Cleanliness, white-

washing and repair of buildings and workshops; (e) Ingress, egress, passages and doors; (f) Care of open spaces, gardens and roads.

3. Provision and care of drinking water.
4. Canteen Services.
5. Management of workers cloak rooms; rest rooms and library.

Workers' Health Service:

1. Factory Health Centre:
 - (a) Playgrounds; (b) Health education; (c) Medical examination for workers; (d) Health research.
2. Factory Dispensary and Clinic:
 - (a) General treatment; (b) Treatment of individual diseases and fatigue; (c) Treatment of accidents.
3. Women and Child Welfare:
 - (a) Anti-natal and pre natal care; (b) Maternity Aid; (c) Infant welfare; (d) Creche; (e) Women's general education.
4. Workers' Recreation:
 - (a) Physical; (b) Playgrounds; (c) Outdoor Life; (d) Athletics; (e) Gymnasium; (f) Women's recreation.
5. Employment Follow-up.
 - (a) Reading room; (b) Library; (c) Circulating Library; (d) Visual education; (e) Pictorial Education; (f) Factory News Bulletin; (g) Literacy Classes; (h) Adult Education; (i) News Review; (j) Lecture Programme; (k) Debating Union; (l) Study Circles; (m) Education of workers' children; Nursery School, Primary School; (n) Women's Education; General Education with emphasis on hygiene, sex life, family life, family planning, child care, domestic economy, home handicrafts.

6. Cultural Activities:

- (a) Musical Evenings and Circles; (b) Art Circles; (c) Folk songs and stories; (d) Histrionics; (e) Folk dancing; (f) Festival celebrations.

Labour Welfare:

1. Factory Council consisting of representatives of labour and employers.
2. Workmen's Arbitration Council.
3. Vocational and Job Adjustment.
4. Social Welfare Department's Co-operation with Personnel Administration, especially for Case Investigation, Interview and Vocational Testing.
5. Employment Follow up.
6. Research Bureau.

Labour's Economic Welfare:

1. Co-operatives or Cost-price Shops for consumers' necessities, especially grain, vegetable, milk, meat, oils and ghee, cloth and daily requirements.
2. Co-operative Credit Society.
3. Thrift Schemes and Savings Bank.
4. Unemployment Insurance.
5. Health Insurance.
6. Employment Bureau.
7. Profit Share and Bonus Schemes.
8. Factory Transport Service.

General Welfare:

1. Housing.
2. Family Case Work.

The items in the list we have given above are self-explanatory. But their details vary according to the nature of the occupation, the number of workers concerned, the character of the work-place and several other factors. An efficient Personnel Officer can easily fill in the details of each programme of work, and even add new items. It must be insisted here that welfare work in the work-place, though somewhat different in character from welfare work outside the

work-place, is not unconnected with the latter. Indeed, welfare work inside and outside the work-place, as well as general welfare work and the economic welfare of the workmen, must be intelligently co-ordinated with one another.

Though every item of welfare work in the list is very important, special remarks may be made about a few ones. Health and education of the worker should receive the constant attention and care of the Personnel Officer. Indeed, there is no opportunity which cannot be utilized for the furtherance of the worker's health and education. By health we do not mean merely the absence of illness but the positive presence of vitality in the body and mind. This depends on the proper conditions of work, nourishing diet, sanitary conditions of living and wholesome and healthy habits. The Personnel Officer should secure all these for the workers, if they have to lead useful lives. He should insist on the management to make it possible for the workers to have these essential conditions for health. He may suggest improvements in the conditions of work, such as, installation of exhaustion plants, humidifiers, cooling plants and other scientific devices wherever necessary; he may inculcate in the workers the principles of making and taking a nutritive diet and, may be, even provide it through the mess or the canteen; he may plan housing and cause colonies to be built, effect improvement in existing ones and supervise over living conditions; he may teach, by example and precept, the healthful habits of living. In all these cases, the services of the medical officers or the colony medical officers, as the case may be, are invaluable. Though the function of the hospital is obviously that of treating ailments and dispensing medicines it should fulfil a positive and nobler role. The hospital should be made a centre for dispensing health knowledge. Whether the person is

at work or at play, at the bath or at his meal, health principles can be inculcated with reference to the changing contexts. In other words, the hospital with its officials should help the Personnel Officer in educating the worker to know and maintain healthful habits in his work life, play life, sex life, individual life and social life. The worker's wife and children should be similarly educated.

So ubiquitous and versatile is the role of education. Without education a rich man's life is poor indeed; with it a poor man's life is rich. Education touches the entire life of the individual. While he is at work the worker should be made to adjust himself to his job, psychologically, physically and intellectually. While he is operating on the machine, it is easy to teach him what the machine is like, and how it works. In the beginning he may learn the elementary principles and later have a knowledge of the complex design and structure of the machine, and finally know the history of its invention and its inventor. We believe this scientific knowledge on the part of our workers is not at all irrelevant and useless, though it may appear to be so, considering the present state of their abysmal ignorance. This knowledge of the machine, its working and its history has tremendous psychological effects on the worker. He finds meaning in the infinite motions of the monster. Since he understands its behaviours, he is not overawed but keeps his dignity. He will consider himself as a master of the machine instead of being its tool. He will work intelligently and hence efficiently and will claim and deserve his promotion. If proper educational facilities are provided from the beginning and a good atmosphere is maintained, the intelligent worker may even pursue his scientific interest and crown his career with fruitful achievements. What pessimist can dare affirm that in the present

worker, so much humiliated and degraded, we have not an embryonic *Visvakarma* or *Vulcanus*?

The programme of education for the workers may appear to be very ambitious. But the subjects we have included are most necessary for the full expression of life. Even if a man is to be a worker all his life, and his wife and children and his children's children and all his generations to come are to be workers, they still have to know the fundamentals of life, of the sciences and the arts, of the achievements of mankind in various fields. We cannot shut out "culture" from the life of the worker, be he ever so busy. Simple and elementary books have to be written for the adult workers and courses have to be specially designed for them.

In devising this scheme of studies for the workers, we are well aware of their present illiterate condition. But adult illiteracy is a passing phase. Adults can be made literate and by education of the children, who are future adults, the problem of illiteracy is bound to disappear. It may be argued that workers have no leisure to know things and study them. Precisely that is also our argument. We cannot perpetuate a system of economy which manifestly confesses that it allows no leisure to the workers to improve their bodies and minds. We do not believe in a philosophy of the need to maintain a leisureless class; no in the inevitability of a leisureless class; nor in the inevitability of a the inevitability of such an invidious phenomenon is incidental to exploitative psychology. Even with whatever leisure is at the worker's disposal, the experiment may be tried and useful results obtained. We must repeat that what we have designed for the workers is only elementary.

So far as the worker's wife is concerned, her education must lay emphasis on hygiene, domestic economy (covering cooking, wash-

ing, etc.), sex life and child care. Practical education in knitting, tailoring, etc., should be given to her if she is not a worker. If she is a worker, we discourage her from engaging herself in further work as it involves additional strain. Domestic duties, child care and companionship of her husband are by themselves sufficient to occupy her leisure hours. Concerning the children, their education should be the same as given to other children of the nation. Worker's children, along with others children, are the children of the nation. They should not be made working-class conscious; and their education should be planned along national lines and with reference to human destiny and ideals. Given a fair measure of general and practical education, the boy should be free to "adventure" in life once or twice and find his own "calling" as a youth of character. If the early education of the child is good, we hazard to avouch that the youth will not miss his noble work, prophets of evil and bad social systems notwithstanding. But, at present, a great deal has to be done before thinking of educating the worker's child. The child's physical and social environments have to be improved; the child should be washed, fed and clothed. The Personnel Officer cannot get these things done through the creche and the nursery for all time. The parents of the child have also to be educated in the ways of bringing up the child. The social worker should not relieve the parents from child care. He should teach them the art of child upbringing and supplement their work by institutional care so far as is necessary. We should not merely "draw" the child away from the bad environment; this will not solve the problem. For the environment which is degenerating children will produce another set of degenerate children in course of time and the problem will arise again. Therefore, the right approach is to attack the environment and make it

impossible to produce bad children. Make homes healthy and children will be strong.

Techniques of Labour Welfare Work.—

What should be the techniques of labour welfare work? In spite of resources and clear statement of the objectives, welfare work is bound to fail if the techniques employed are wrong. Employment of techniques is an art and no hard and fast rule can be laid down for it. At the outset, it must be stated that for purposes of welfare work the labourer, his wife and children have to be treated as one unit, while the respective needs of each have also to be kept in mind. Failure of most welfare work is due to the lack of essential correlation of the needs of the worker, his wife and child. It has already been mentioned that welfare work inside and outside the work-place also has to be linked up. Indeed, welfare work outside the work-place is a kind of follow-up service, and welfare work inside the work-place with reference to that outside is of the same character. Again, one item of welfare work as far as possible has to be linked up with other items so as to present a chain of collateral, successive or progressive activities. In other words, one activity must be adjusted and related to another as one which should be simultaneous or one which should follow as the next step. Life is multi-purposive; and no one activity should receive more attention at the cost of other activities. Welfare workers in charge of programmes, unfortunately, do not realise that programme making is a difficult science, requiring planning, method and experimentation. The ordinary special worker has the tendency to initiate programmes carried out at different places. He does not make allowances for difference in aims, suitability to place and participants, local needs and consideration for the participants' cultural level, intelligence, desire and interests.

Welfare programmes of the future will make a clear distinction between basic programmes, secondary programmes and special programmes. Basic programmes are organised on the basis of universal participation of pre-determined age and sex groups. Secondary programmes have limited participation on the "Interest" basis. Special programmes are advanced programmes specially provided to give maximum opportunities for self-expression, self-development, creative and cultural achievement. The science of programme-making consists in planning them on the above basis, at the same time carefully determining and changing them to provide for the development levels of participating groups.

The art of programme-making consists in timing, modifying and changing programmes to maintain the highest pitch of enthusiasm and interest of the participants. Reactions of the participants are carefully watched and noted, the personal initiative of their officer is ever in readiness to give those special touches which hold the interest of the participants and keep their emotions ever alive to make the best of each programme.

As far as possible, workers should be actively associated in welfare work and every activity has to be conducted with their full consent and co-operation. Committees composed largely of workers and partly of the members of the management should be entrusted with the duties of adumbrating programmes and carrying them out. The Personnel Officer, who will be

the General Chairman, will correct and discipline, guide and counsel, instruct and inspire the committee in their thinking and activities. The association of workers in welfare activities has great moral advantages. It creates confidence in the mind of the workers. It fosters public spirit, sense of responsibility and leadership qualities. It makes the workers self-reliant and able to manage their own problems. The crown and culmination of welfare work is to enable the worker himself to plan and carry out his welfare. Welfare will have significance and purpose and the welfare department will have seen the fruition of its labours.

These are the lines along which labour welfare work may be conducted in future India. The programme that is outlined can be immediately given effect to in all the work-places, whether they are factories, mines or plantations, and in labour *bustees* or colonies wherever they exist. Ignorance, ill-health and dirt are the three giants labour welfare has to fight, in the home life, personal life, work life and community life of the worker. They have to be fought out steadily and scientifically on all the four fronts. Man has planned for cotton, coal and coffee and yet done little for his fellow man. In the coming years, the labourer shall be made mightier than the machine with which he works, more fruitful than the dust on which he treads, richer than the earth into which he digs.

(By courtesy "15 Years Ahead", published by Messrs. Fazalbhoy Ltd., Bombay)

NEWS AND NOTES

CHILDREN'S ART CENTER IN U. S.

The Children's Art Center in Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, is the oldest fine arts museum in the United States built and run exclusively for children. It was established in 1918.

The Center's primary purpose is teaching appreciation of beauty. Its program also guides children in the constructive use of leisure time, helps to develop their imagination and independence, and provides encouragement for both the emotionally disturbed child and the unusually talented.

The main attractions of the Center are its free facilities for drawing, painting, and sculpturing. The Center also maintains a permanent exhibition of art from its own collections, and loan exhibitions of contemporary art that are changed every three weeks.

The visitors to this museum range in age from 6 to 20. One afternoon a week is reserved for boys and girls of high-school age. All pay a small registration fee, but materials and instruction are free.

The Center is open every afternoon during the week and on Saturday mornings so that the children may attend it during hours when school is not in session. About 50 come daily.

Creates Tranquil Atmosphere.—Through its physical surroundings the Center creates an atmosphere of tranquillity in which the children feel at ease.

The building is a rectangular, one-story brick structure, simply designed. Five large glass doors are cut into the facade. The interior of the building is light and airy. The vaulted ceiling is painted blue, and the walls are cream colored. Tables and benches

vary in size so that the tallest and the smallest of the young artists can work comfortably. Even the picture hanging on the wall and the exhibitions of art objects are placed at the eye level of a child. The glass doors open upon a garden where the children work in pleasant weather. The wide stretch of lawn is bordered by flowers and trees and enclosed by a high brick wall.

Miss Charlotte Dempsey has been director of the Center for 20 years. She and her five assistants encourage spontaneity and originality but give sound instruction to children in the fundamentals of design. The teachers guide by suggestion and by helping the children to see beauty of color and line in the art work on display.

No copying of other pictures or sculpture is allowed. The Center wants the children to express their own perceptions in their own way. Each child makes his own choice of medium and subject. Then he goes to the teacher for help with technical problems, or she comes to him with a proposal for improving his work.

Story-Telling Period.—To broaden the children's vision and stimulate their imaginations, a regular story-telling period is held each day. Frequent talks are given by outside lecturers. Specialists in such fields as ornithology, forestry, and dancing, as well as artists, writers, political leaders, and persons who are familiar with distant countries, have addressed the students. While they listen, the children draw images that a speaker's words suggest.

The Center's collections of art represent a wide variety of styles and periods, although the majority of the pieces are by modern American sculptors and painters. Various

art galleries in Boston and the Boston Museum of Fine Arts have cooperated for many years in lending the Center exhibitions. Several Boston shops have also lent crystal, silver, and pottery, made in the United States and in other countries. An effort is made to have on display several objects that the children may handle themselves.

Skills of the children are widely recognized. Exhibitions of their work are held every year in Boston. On some occasions a display planned for one day has attracted so much attention that the showing has been extended. Exhibitions have also been requested by other countries.

Exhibitions in Foreign Countries.—Work from the Children's Art Center has been seen in the Museum of Pedagogy and the Exposition Internationale in Paris; in the University of Moscow, USSR; in Melbourne, Australia; and in Burma, China and Japan.

Teachers of art classes in schools of Boston and nearby cities often bring their students

to view the work being done at the Center, and visitors to the United States from other countries frequently include the Center in their itinerary.

Many children who once studied at the Center are now adult artists. One such pupil is Allan Rohan Crite, a young Negro painter who has won acclaim for his interpretation of the life of Christ in twentieth-century terms. In addition to designing and executing paintings for many Catholic and Protestant churches, Crite has recently illustrated a book of Negro spirituals published by the Harvard University Press in Cambridge, near Boston. Some of his works also hang in museum. Crite looks upon the Children's Art Center as his alma mater and still brings his work there for exhibition.

The Center was founded by privately subscribed funds. It is now supported by donations from individuals and by money collected in the city's annual Community Chest campaign for voluntary support of nonprofit institutions.

PEOPLE PRODUCE—NOT MACHINES

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The following line occurs in a Hindi song:—

"Though the skill is in the finger, the credit goes to the instrument." Similarly though people produce, credit very often goes to machines. When that happens people forget that the machines themselves are products of human energy. Further, a machine, however cleverly designed and whatever its productive capacity, is just an inert mass of matter unless human energy puts life in it. What is more important is the man behind the machine.

World War II has left the whole world in a queer mess. Everybody is agreed that post-war reconstruction depends on speeding up production of essential articles of basic needs of people, but there is disagreement over methods of achieving this purpose. Government hopes to help the production drive through legislation regarding sickness insurance and improving working conditions. It is to their credit that despite other more urgent preoccupations they have recently enacted. "The Employes' State Insurance Act and the Factories' Act of 1948." When however legislation precedes facilities neces-

sary for fulfilling the requirements of the Acts, the latter are not likely to prove an economic venture or to serve their main purpose of increasing production. The employer tries to step up production through rationalization and standardization of manufacturing processes. This method is good as far as it goes, but it cannot go very far, for it fails to take into consideration the individual personality of workers. One can flatten out methods of manufacturing processes into uniform patterns, but one cannot handle operatives the same way. The labour leader pins his faith on wages. Wages have of course to be commensurate with the type of work done, but wages act as an incentive to production only upto subsistence level. Beyond that emotional incentives are necessary to draw out the latent energy of operatives. Their basic needs of self-importance, pride in their work and self-expression through it, have to be respected if they are to give of their best.

The capitalist swears by private enterprise to step up production, but private enterprise uncontrolled by public scrutiny often runs amok and rides rough-shod over human rights. The editor of the British Journal of Industrial Safety characterises "the nineteenth century as an industrial Dark Age, when the advocates of *laissez faire* laid up riches for themselves and misery for everybody else, including their own heirs." The ugly traditions of this dark age are still lingering to a great extent in the industrial life of India to-day. The socialists' panacea is nationalization of industries. It is however nowhere proved that everything else being equal nationalised industries produce more than those working under private enterprise. The slogan one reads on the socialist banner is 'Common good of the common man,' but psychology teaches that each man has his own individual personality,

and personality is a unique combination of varying physical structure and mental attitudes. And how about women operatives? Their number in industries is on the increase. The personality traits of woman are so different from those of man that to treat the common good of the common woman the same way as the common good of the common man can only lead to disastrous consequences both for man and woman. The communist upholds the absorption of all proprietary rights in a common interest. It is however not clear how the doctrine of a community of property is going to solve the problem of optimum production, and one grows more suspicious when he finds that the communist wants to coerce his opponents to his way of thinking at the point of the sword. Throughout the history of mankind there has not been a single incident which can give evidence that the jungle law has ever succeeded in establishing a human order of appreciable merit. The policy of might is right has been tried out *ad nauseam* in every part of the world, and each time it has recorded a disastrous defeat after scoring an initial victory. The right however that is a moral truth has within it so unassailable a might that in the end it invariably asserts itself. And one such moral truth is that people produce, not *isms*. No matter under what *ism* an industry works it will be well on the road of optimum production if only it realizes that people produce, that production flows from the health of its operatives—health of their body as well as of their mind. If anything that of the mind is more important. There is a Chinese saying that "It is the mind that makes the body rich." Various causes can be adduced for the dearth of goods of basic needs in the post-war era, but the main one is strained management-labour relations in industries, and the only antidote for this is a well-organised industrial health programme

working out the established principles of industrial medicine.

Before the advent of World War II the only attention that management of industrial concerns in India gave to the health of their operatives was through a factory dispensary. This is still the general routine of Indian factories. Such a service at its best is no better than a charitable dispensary, and at its worst is a make-belief and just a sop to public opinion. It was only during World War II and after that a few far-sighted industrialists in India began to realise the importance of a comprehensive industrial health programme. Even they however are not fully alive to what is now an accepted fact in Western countries that a full-blooded programme of industrial health is an investment and not an expense. Such a programme by its very nature has to be many sided, for it has to include in it everything that can affect the health of workers, and so its capital expenses are rather on the high side, and managements fight shy of them because they find it difficult to appreciate that they are sound economies in the long run. An industrial health programme undoubtedly leads to increased efficiency of the worker and a higher rate of productivity. Advances in science and technology do help production but only when human relations among those working in production are smooth enough to avoid waste of effort and resources. This is particularly urgent to-day when the need of increased production is the greatest at one end, and at the other management-labour relations are strained as never before, and as the ultimate goal of an industrial health programme is to improve human relations in industry it is the main salvation of the present mess.

An industrial health programme has to have two sides, physical and psychological, for a human being is made up of body as well as mind, and as body and mind are

co-related and react on each other at every step so too the physical and psychological sides of an industrial health programme imperceptibly merge into one another. A sense of fear or insecurity often causes organic trouble among workers. These are known as psychosomatic diseases. They are more common in industries than most people have any idea of, and they lower production considerably. When such and similar emotional tensions affect whole groups of workers they lead to a strike, and a lightning strike, however objectionable, is an inevitable consequence of the mind acting upon the body. When oxygen and hydrogen come together they do not wait to give notice before causing an explosion. Similarly when inside stresses of groups of workers gather enough impetus from outside resistance of management there is no go but for such emotional tension to translate itself into the physical symptom of a lightning strike. To prevent the chemical explosion oxygen and hydrogen should be kept apart, and to lessen the number and intensity of the physiological outburst emotional tensions should be resolved before it is too late. This is the main purpose of an industrial health programme, and though we shall now discuss briefly a few of the main attributes of the physical and psychological sides of such a programme separately, we must not forget that both react to each other intimately.

"Men, methods and materials" are the three main pillars of a factory. The study of methods and materials comprises the physical side. It tries to find out and remove physical hazards to health, and does so through what are known as industrial health surveys and accident prevention campaigns. Further, through job analysis and time and motion studies of each job it lessens body fatigue. The psychological side studies men and their mental attitudes and tries to lessen mental fatigue, and resolves emo-

tional stresses, through various types of interviews and schemes of training within industries, and helps workers to regain emotional balance by listening to their grievances and attending to their suggestions sympathetically.

The health of a worker however depends on his activities of all twenty-four hours of the day. Over and above improving his working conditions, his whole life has to be studied and protected if his health is to be safeguarded on all fronts. This calls for consideration of several other social activities like housing, nutrition, education and recreation. It is a hopeful sign that the trend in Indian industries is towards increasing attention to these activities. They however generally fail to achieve their purpose, for they are often undertaken in a patronising mood, and human dignity resents charity. Such activities should be undertaken in a spirit of co-operative partnership, and workers should always be consulted in all matters pertaining to their personal welfare.

As our aim is to safeguard a worker on all fronts, we must not forget that there is no human activity which has not some bearing on health. Two amongst the most important are colour and music. Both of these can be profitably used to draw out a worker's latent efficiency and speed up production.

Colour can help in many ways. There are warm colours, and cool colours, and they can be used for regulating the temperature of a work-room. There are bright colours and dull colours. The former can be used to give prominence to work parts which are important, and the latter can help to keep less important parts in the background. This way they can lessen eye strain as well as mental strain. Colours can produce a psychological effect too and soothe emotional upsets. Colour is so important to industries that no industrial health programme which is well-planned is without a colour code for machines, equipment and buildings of a factory, and their surroundings.

Similarly it has been provided that "music while you work," if wisely utilised, is a stimulant for higher effort, and a balm for tired nerves. In Indian industries however music is still an untried quantity.

Charles Grant Allan has said that "The most beautifully coloured birds are always those which have had the most to do with the production of bright coloured fruits and flowers." Let us then strive to do our best by our workers in order to draw out all their bright colours so that the country may grow through their labour rich and attractive fruit. Let us tempt them to sing their way through their work.

DISABLED HOUSEWIVES LEARN HOUSEKEEPING

Courses on how to simplify daily house-keeping chores are being given in the United States for women suffering from such chronic ailments as heart disease. The housewives learn how to do the same amount of work around their homes with far less physical effort.

An increasing number of American hospitals and colleges are providing these courses as an aid to housewives who have a special

work problem because of some physical disability. A doctor can advise a man whose health is poor to change his job for one that requires less physical effort. Such advice, however, is unrealistic for a housewife. She has only one job—taking care of her home and family.

An example of the type of program offered in these courses for housewives is that conducted in the State of Michigan for women

with heart disease. With the cooperation of the Michigan State Heart Association, Wayne University in Detroit is offering a work-simplification course for women with a cardiac ailment. Methods taught in the course are based on time-and-motion studies made in the homes of cooperating housewives.

While each woman went about her day's work—such as preparing meals, making beds, cleaning and dishwashing—the researchers noted the number of steps she took and how often she strained to reach items on shelves and lifted various objects. Special attention was given to the work done in the kitchen, since that is where the average housewife spends most of her time.

Their detailed observation completed, the researchers then analyzed every move to find out how the housewife could have done each task more easily. They recommended no expensive alterations in home or labor-saving devices. Instead, they concentrated on better arrangement of such kitchen equipment as the stove and refrigerator and the placing of utensils on shelves so they could be reached without effort.

Just how successful the researchers were, is illustrated by the fact that they devised a work-saving routine for one housewife that reduced by 60 per cent the effort formerly required to do her daily tasks. The new routine saved her 61 miles of useless walking a year in preparing one daily meal.

LEGAL AID FOR TRADE UNIONISTS IN U. K.

Britain's trade union movement has a comprehensive structure of legal protection, aid and advice for the benefit of trade unions and individual trade unionists.

At the centre, the Trades Union Congress has a Standing Order permitting its General Council to raise, in emergency, a special levy on its unions to help fight any legal case of general significance to trade unionists and which may need to be carried through the lengthy process of successive appeals. This power has not recently been used, but the frequent—and expensive—necessity of taking workers' cases to the House of Lords to obtain a final ruling has often led the T. U. C. to make grants to its unions to help them to fight important cases to that level.

Several organs of the Trades Union Congress—its Research, Social Insurance and Wages Councils Departments, for instance—watch all legislation affecting trade unionists' interests and negotiate with State depart-

ments on points of law arising. A side issue in recent nationalisations, for instance, was the question of compensation for workers displaced on the take-over. This has been the subject of lengthy discussions both in the T.U.C. and between the T.U.C. and the Government. The specialist committees of the T.U.C. also offer an advisory service to unions on legislative questions and give guidance on issues of legislative policy and interpretation.

T. U. C. Guidance Sought.—The T. U. C. has its own legal adviser to deal with technical questions of law, who also serves individual trade unions on request. Questions of the conduct and rights of unions rank high on a long list of items on which the legal guidance of the T. U. C. has been sought. Such points as the legality of rules, disposal of funds, meeting and organisation procedure, legal forms of amalgamation, are the subjects of frequent requests for T. U. C. advice.

Several larger unions maintain their own legal departments, while a number of firms of solicitors, often because of some original sympathy of their partners with labour, have become specialists in questions of trade union law and of labour and social legislation. Two of these firms each service as many as 20 or 30 trade unions apiece.

With the adoption of a "no-strike" policy and the acceptance by the trade union movement of compulsory arbitration in industrial disputes, questions of the rights and responsibilities of members under such laws as those governing picketing, persuasion and intimidation in industrial conflicts, and conspiracy, are now only a minor part of the work of trade union lawyers. "Unofficial" strikers have no claim to legal assistance from their unions.

Even before World War II, however, the major part of the day-to-day legal work of trade unions sprang not out of industrial disputes but out of protective social and industrial legislation. The old Workmen's Compensation Acts especially, and the common law right to claim damages from employers whose "negligence" contributed to accidents, were a principal source of trade union litigation. Under the Workmen's Compensation Acts the legal department of one union recovered over £500,000 in six months on behalf of its members, and claimed from the formation of the union in 1922 to the outbreak of World War II in 1939 to have secured over £3,000,000 in compensation.

New Responsibility.—With the new National Insurance legislation—and particularly the Industrial Injuries Act, which provides for both temporary benefit and compensation for permanent disability to industrial casualties—the necessity for legal action to be initiated in every individual case has gone. Compensation is now assessed through

a structure of special tribunals from local to national level, which include employers' and workers' assessors and where an individual claiming compensation can be accompanied by a trade union official.

Unions still assist their members in preparing their cases before these tribunals, however; in fact, the relations with the structure of semi-judicial tribunals developed in connection with recent social legislation has become an important new responsibility of trade unions. The right to take common law action against "negligent" employers still exists, moreover, and is exercised.

Besides this type of legal protection, many unions also help workers to defend themselves in charges made against them in connection with their jobs. An outstanding example of this occurs in the road transport industry. The transport unions defend or help their members every year in literally thousands of cases under the Road Traffic Acts and on charges ranging from minor technical offences to manslaughter.

Wide Range of Queries.—Legally, unions can only give direct aid to members in issues arising out of their employment. But the legal advice which unions provide covers many other questions: one union legal officer says that he has advised members on every possible legal issue except divorce.

A particularly wide range of legal queries arises out of the activity of the 500 local trades councils—councils of local branches of unions recognised as district agents of the T. U. C. to act in questions of common interest to all trade unionists in the area. These can and do concern themselves with such questions as housing, town-planning, local medical services, educational facilities, local employment questions, recreational and cul-

tural services, and the T.U.C.'s legal advisor answers a stream of enquiries on the legal aspects of such issues.

The legal cover which is extended by British trade unions in social and industrial questions is, therefore, fairly complete.

I. L. O.'S TECHNICAL AID PROGRAMME

The International Labour Organisation has begun to provide technical assistance to its member countries as part of the combined United Nations-Specialised Agencies programme for the economic development of underdeveloped areas.

The I.L.O.'s contribution to the programme is being co-ordinated with the contributions of the other agencies through the Technical Assistance Board which was established by a resolution approved by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly of the United Nations. The equivalent of \$20,000,000 has been pledged by 54 Governments to finance the programme up to December 31, 1951. Of this sum, roughly \$2,000,000 will be allocated to the I.L.O.

The fields in which the I.L.O. is providing assistance include vocational guidance and training, employment service organisation, migration, labour statistics, co-operation and handicrafts, industrial welfare, labour inspection, labour legislation, industrial relations, agricultural working and living conditions, social security, industrial safety, and industrial hygiene. Assistance will also be given in the solution of specific problems relating to particular industries or categories of persons.

Assistance is being supplied by missions composed of experts, and in the form of seminars, training institutes, meeting for exchange of information and in various other ways. The I.L.O. has provided technical assistance to its member states since the earliest years of the Organisation. With

the funds that have been made available under the new United Nations Specialised Agencies programme, however, the possibilities of increasing the Organisation's work of this kind have been considerably enlarged.

Countries which have requested assistance within the I.L.O.'s area of responsibility under the new programme include Burma, Ceylon, Colombia, Ecuador, India, Indonesia, Iran, Israel, Lebanon, Pakistan, Thailand and Turkey.

Preliminary work has been started on some of the projects proposed by these countries, and others are under consideration by the Technical Assistance Board. Certain of the projects will be undertaken by the I.L.O. in co-operation with one or more of the other international organisations participating in the programme.

Steps are now being taken to implement an agreement providing for various forms of assistance, which was signed with the Government of Ecuador by a joint UNESCO-ILO mission which recently visited that country.

Several projects to assist the Iranian Government to carry out its Seven-Year Plan are under consideration.

A joint UNESCO-ILO technical adviser is leaving shortly for Lebanon to assess that country's needs for assistance in education and vocational guidance and training.

It has been decided to appoint a resident technical assistance representative in Pakistan to help in formulating requests for technical assistance and to co-ordinate the

assistance programmes of the various participating organisations in the country.

A mission composed of four experts on education and vocational training will be sent jointly by UNESCO and ILO to provide assistance to Thailand.

Training Courses for Asia.—An International Labour Organisation programme designed to assist in the development of vocational training in Asia got under way during October 1950 in India and Ceylon.

The programme comprises four institutes, each dealing with an aspect of training under the direction of an I.L.O. expert. The programme is one of the operational activities the I.L.O. is carrying on as part of its general programme of technical assistance to its member governments in the field of manpower.

Three of the institutes will be held at the I.L.O.'s Asian Field Office on Technical Training at Bangalore, India. The fourth will be repeated four times—in Ceylon, India, Pakistan and the Philippines.

The three institutes being held at Bangalore will deal, respectively, with (a) organi-

sation and administration of national vocational training programmes, (b) the organisation and administration of apprenticeship, and (c) the organisation and administration of vocational instructor training. The techniques necessary for introducing and spreading the "Training Within Industry" system of job instruction will be taught in the fourth institute.

The course on the organisation and administration of national training programmes began early this month with Dr. S. S. Dhama an Indian expert on the staff of the I.L.O., as the instructor. The course will last twelve weeks.

The institute on the organisation and administration of apprenticeship was scheduled to begin mid-October with Mr. Svend Pedersen, Director of the I.L.O.'s Bangalore Office, as instructor. Mr. James Dowie, an English expert, is conducting the institute on the training of instructors, which is scheduled to start at the end of October. Mr. Sven Grabe, an I.L.O. expert, is conducting the four T.W.I. institutes, which got under way early in October and will extend over five months.

FATIGUE & EFFICIENCY IN TEXTILE INDUSTRY

The progress of industry, the well-being of the working man, the attainment and maintenance of secure and rising standard of living, economic self-sufficiency in the national sphere, all call for an increase in productivity. Efficiency can only be ensured if output increases without impairment of quality or heavy increase in costs of production. Decreased output is attributed, among other things, to fatigue in industry, both psychological and physiological. It is, therefore, natural that despite its elusive nature fatigue should have been the subject of

great deal of experimental and systematic study in countries industrially advanced.

Besides, industrial fatigue is a subject that interests both the employer and the employed. Since a decline in production is often associated with the workman's fatigue, the employer is keen to check this decline by eliminating fatigue. The employee also wants to eliminate fatigue since, it is for him, a feeling of tiredness or pain—something intrinsically unpleasant.

The field of systematic investigations into industrial psychology being relatively new

in this country, a report like that of Shri Kali Prasad, should stimulate efforts at investigating the causes of fatigue and suggesting ways and means to counteract its effects.

Fatigue in industry, according to the author, is "a condition caused by activity in which the output produced by that activity tends to be relatively poor and the degree of fatigue tends to vary directly with the poverty of output." The definition, in his opinion, is sufficiently objective to admit of experimental and quantitative treatment of the phenomenon of fatigue.

The report of the investigation, which was conducted under the auspices of the Indian Research Fund Association, attempts a study of the condition and the decrement in efficiency of the workers in the spinning and weaving sections of the Swadeshi Cotton Mills, Kanpur. The author has employed output as the main index of fatigue. In later studies, it is proposed to deal with the other indices of industrial fatigue, namely, consumption of power, industrial accidents, absenteeism and labour turnover.

The report embodies certain tentative conclusions from the enquiry which can be utilised for experimentation. In the Spinning Section, (1) the morning shift shows better performance on the whole. (2) Compared to the morning and day shifts, there is a steep rise in the output in the first spell of the night shift. But this is soon counterbalanced by a comparatively poor rate of work in the second spell (3-30 a.m. to 6-30 a.m.). (3) Boredom is characteristic of the mental state of the

worker in all the shifts in the last hour of the first spell and in the middle of the second. (4) The point of maximum efficiency is reached in the second and third hours of work in all the shifts. (5) Night work adversely affects the capacity of the worker and the quality of the work. (6) The efficiency is higher in winter than in summer. (7) Rest pauses and changes in postures delay the onset of fatigue and counteract it. (8) The high degree of muscular steadiness and co-ordination required in the spinning processes makes spinners perceptibly affected by fatigue. (9) Distance from mills seems to be a significant contributory cause of fatigue. (10) Poor nutrition lowers resistance and hastens fatigue.

The investigation in the Weaving Section reveals (1) Gradual rise in production from the first day of the week to the last day except for Friday when it approximates to Tuesday level, (2) Maximum production is recorded in November, December and January after which decline sets in. In July and August, there is a slight spurt.

It is proposed to extend the investigation to other sections in the Mills such as Ring Spinning, Warping, Drawing, Sizing, etc. To evolve methods of counteracting fatigue, experimental work is to be undertaken on (i) Rest-pauses, (ii) Postural adjustment, (iii) Regulation of work-hours and (iv) Modification of lighting arrangements.

It is welcome news that the programme for future work includes collection of parallel data in the different sections from other textile mills at Nagpur, Ahmedabad, Bombay and Madras.

FACTORY CONTROL IN SOVIET UNION

Factory control agencies in the Soviet Union are integral components of a comprehensive system of control, which is exercised by four distinct sets of agencies: govern-

ment offices, Communist Party, public organisations, and voluntary groups.

Government Offices.—The Soviet factory is owned by the state and administered by the government. Accordingly, it is not only an economic organisation but also a part of the government: it is the smallest unit in the hierachical structure of state industrial administration.

The Central Board of Industrial Management of a factory issues directives for the organisation or reorganisation of individual establishments, introduction of technological innovations, implementation of cost-accounting provisions and related functions.

Trusts determine the annual 'industrial and financial plan' of each subordinated factory and decide upon its change. They also issue directives for the procurement of raw materials and credits, fix prices of finished products, and decide upon the variety of management. Control exercised by trusts is direct and daily.

Management consists of the Director of the factory appointed by the Minister. He is an indisputable master of the enterprise; he has the first and final word in all decisions concerning the details of production. Under him are the *chiefs of shops* who indirectly manage within their departments, all the activities pertaining to the organisation of production and technological processes, and who employ, dismiss, and transfer workers. Directly subordinated to the chiefs of shops are *foremen* who provide direct contact between management and workers. All orders are channelled to the workers through foremen who are also empowered to impose punitive measures upon the violators of labour discipline.

The Ministry of State Control exercises minute control over cash expenditures, cost-accounting, and, in general, the carrying

out of administrative orders. It operates through an elaborate system of Controllers-General and their staffs of senior controllers, controllers and junior controllers. Co-operating with these agencies are senior and junior inspectors. Junior controllers are established in all important enterprises and act independently of factory management. Their control is two-fold: preliminary and terminal. The first consists of checking on the legality of estimates, plans and expenditure allotments before any payments have taken place. Its function is to forestall any possible deficiencies. The second consists of auditing factory books for the purpose of unveiling unwarranted expenditures and hidden reserves.

The State Planning Commission is an all-important body empowered not only to draw plans for current and future economic activities but also to control individual enterprises.

The Control-Inspection Board of the Finance Ministry is a highly centralised control agency, operating through its own controllers-inspectors. It has the right to audit the books of any industrial enterprise and to report all deficiencies to District Attorney.

District Attorney exercises control over the observance of the general laws, decisions and orders by both management and trade union organisation.

State Arbitration is assigned the task of ironing out disagreements emerging in contract negotiations between various enterprises. It is fully empowered to supervise the fulfilment of contracts and plans.

The Organs of State Security.—This special police is to combat sabotage, political unconformity, and "counter-revolutionary" forces in general.

The Workers' and Peasants' Militia is assigned the task of preventing disorders and safeguarding socialist property.

The Communist Party.—Party control is centered on the fulfilment of production quotas, proper expenditures of funds, protection of socialist property, and administration of social insurance. In its control of the work of the plant administration the party organisation must strengthen the principle of one-man management. It must enhance the authority of the manager by seeing that his orders and directives are strictly fulfilled.

Public Organisations.—These are semi-official mass associations assisting government agencies in performing their routine work and helping the party in its role of a mobilising, recruiting and controlling force. Their decisions are mandatory only for their own members. Only two public organisations operate in the factory: the primary trade union organisation and the Young Communist League.

The factory trade union committee is commissioned by the stipulations of the standardized collective agreement to watch over the conformity of the applied wage scale to legal provisions. It also controls expenditure from the Director's Fund, and internal factory order. Other functions of the committee consist of checking on managerial observances of those provisions of the Labour Code which deal with the well-being of workers, sanitary conditions, and safety techniques. This control is performed by special public inspectors who are elected by trade union organisations.

The Young Communist League, acting under the immediate supervision and under the direct guidance by the Party, looks after the correct application of government and Party decisions by both management and primary trade union organisations.

The Press, although not considered as a public organisation, has been entrusted with an important assignment in the system

of public control. It is an effective medium for unviling deficiencies in the application of relevant laws and decisions.

Voluntary Groups.—The factory is interspersed with various voluntary groups which work as adjuncts of government and Party control agencies. As a rule, these specific voluntary groups are not components of any mass associations but operate on a purely local basis. The most popular voluntary agencies are special control boards of representatives of both management and labour which are appointed under the authority of the Ministry of State Control.

Distinctive Features of the Control Systems.—Government agencies constitute the most systematic and thorough branch of the over-all network of control agencies; they are vested with the right to undertake legal measures against the individuals deviating from the existing orders, norms, and plans. The control exercised by these agencies is professional-bureaucratic and specialised. Its agents are specifically trained and technically equipped to handle the minutiae of very specialised control subjects.

Party control is first of all universal. There is no phase of the political, ideological, or socio-economic "front" which is not wide open to Party control. It is an intra-factory control and therefore it is continuous. It is unilateral; it controls all other control agencies but is not subject to control by them. Management, trade union organisation, police, and all other control forces are permeated by Communists, who are "the eyes and ears" of their respective Party organisations.

The directing body of the factory Party organisation is subordinated to triple intragroup control. It is controlled by (a) primary Party organisation, that is, by

the members who have elected it (horizontal control); (b) the territorial Party organisation to which it is directly subordinated and accountable (vertical control); and (c) the special agents of the Party Control Commission, a central office subordinated directly to the Central Committee of the Communist Party (diagonal control).

Control exercised by public organisations is for the most part non-specialised and has

been devised primarily to serve as an auxiliary of the Party and government systems of control.

Voluntary control is specialised but non-bureaucratic.

(From an article entitled *The Structure of Factory Control in the Soviet Union* by Alexander Vucinich, Hoover Institute, Stanford University, U. S. A., *American Sociological Review*, April 1950.)

SPECIAL PROJECTS TO AID MIGRATION

The International Labour Organisation is about to embark on a number of projects as part of its special programme of activities designed to facilitate the migration of workers from labour surplus to labour deficit countries.

This programme is being financed by a \$1,000,000 fund which was placed at the ILO's disposal in July by a number of its European member countries. The fund is in addition to the Organisation's regular budget.

The programme will comprise a series of special projects to be carried out by officials on the staff of the ILO and by specially engaged outside experts.

Most of these projects are still in the planning and development stage, but some of them have already been launched.

Julian Baer, a United States consultant, has been engaged to analyse the most effective international approach to the problem of classifying occupational characteristics for migration purposes. The purpose of this planning project is to develop the most satisfactory methods for classifying into broad international groupings the occupational characteristics of potential emigrants and the occupational requirements of immigration countries. This classification would be de-

signed to facilitate the matching of emigrants with immigration opportunities.

Manual is Planned.—Preliminary work has been started on a related project. This is to make available a technical manual on occupational analysis, description and classification, with a view to facilitating the establishment of national systems and the international comparison of one national system with another.

The need for work of this kind on occupational nomenclature was stressed by the Preliminary Migration Conference held under the auspices of the ILO in April and May.

At this conference agreement was reached on a division of responsibilities in the field of migration among the various inter-governmental agencies. In September a meeting of representatives of the organisations concerned was held at ILO headquarters to review the work accomplished since the spring conference.

Another project that is being carried through under the special migration programme is the preparation of a Guide to Employment Service Organisation. E. Ganz Wilson, a British Labour Ministry expert, has been loaned to the ILO for two months to assist in this project.

SPECIALISTS FIGHT DISEASE IN INDO-CHINA

United States health specialists are joining in a co-operative campaign against the principal disease problems of the Associated States of Indo-China. Supplies and technical assistance are given on the request of local governments which have cooperated in working out the health programs.

Principal efforts are directed toward combating malaria, tuberculosis, venereal diseases, affecting maternal and child health, and those caused by impure water supplies. The U. S. Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) is coordinating this assistance from the American people with aid projects of the French Government and of United Nations agencies. The U. S. Public Health Service is furnishing doctors, entomologists, sanitary engineers, and other technical personnel.

Physical supplies are now being shipped to Indo-China by ECA. Mobile hospital units and prefabricated hospitals, both with full equipment, are being furnished. DDT, penicillin, and other drugs are being sent. The first shipment of medicines reached Hanoi by air in July 1950.

Acting on reports that aureomycin has been beneficial in treating trachoma, ECA

recently authorised the purchase of 60,000 one-dose tubes of aureomycin ointment in the hope of giving relief to victims of this disease. Trachoma is highly contagious and frequently leads to blindness. Preliminary tests in the Hanoi area showed that the drug had alleviated suffering.

U. S. health specialists are organizing teams staffed with native personnel to deal with health problems locally. Some of the teams will spray about 400,000 dwellings with DDT in an effort to eliminate malaria carrying mosquitoes. Sanitary engineers are supervising other groups in the drilling of wells that will insure safe water supplies for villages. Medical teams work through local authorities and village dispensaries to eliminate diseases.

Emphasis in the program is on self-help and the continuation of health and sanitary practices introduced by the teams. When persons receive medical treatment, members of their family are given preventive treatment and instructed in personal hygiene. Poster displays and other visual aids also are used in the educational program.

NO FREEDOM OF ASSOCIATION IN VENEZUELA

Freedom of association in Venezuela "is far from being complete", according to a report just published by the International Labour Office.

The report said the Venezuelan unions "do not at present enjoy a freedom of action and organisation comparable to that enjoyed by countries in which the functioning of workers' organisations is protected from legal or administrative restrictions."

At the same time, the report described the social legislation of Venezuela as "very

progressive and conceived in such a manner as to ensure the effective protection of the workers."

The report was compiled by a mission of high International Labour Office officials which visited Venezuela for seven weeks in 1949 at the invitation of the Military Government Council which has been in power since a coup d'état on November 24, 1948.

Under the terms of this invitation, the purpose of the mission was "to secure

complete and impartial information concerning social problems, general conditions of the work in the different industries, the scope of the benefits and protection afforded to workers under the legislation in force and the National Government, and the development and functioning of trade unions."

Mission Headed by Rens:

The mission was headed by Jef Rens, senior Assistant Director General of the International Labour Office. The Office is the permanent secretariat of the International Labour Organisation.

The report said that in the field of living conditions and conditions of work, certain Venezuelan laws generally conform to—and sometimes go beyond—ILO standards. However, it added, this legislation was not applied everywhere with the same degree of effectiveness.

Revisions Suggested:

To consolidate the legislation, certain revisions appeared necessary, the mission suggested. It said, however, that it would be difficult for the Government to undertake these revisions without the active collaboration of the workers and employers concerned, and it emphasised that a return to freedom of association appeared to be a condition for this collaboration.

Certain measures taken by the Military Junta since the mission's visit indicated a new trend in the Junta's attitude toward the right to organise and other fundamental freedoms, the report said.

The mission said it had carefully refrained from expressing any judgement with regard to questions which did not fall within the terms of reference of the Venezuelan invitation.

Recommendations Listed:

The mission suggested, however, "in the light of the situation" it had reviewed, that the Venezuelan Government "give the fullest and most earnest consideration to the following steps designed to permit the normal functioning of healthy trade unionism."

1. Removal of the bar against the re-election by the trade unions of former members of their executive committees.

2. Lifting of the obligation to obtain prior Government approval for the holding of trade union meetings.

3. Re-establishment of the liberty of the unions to form national federations and confederations.

4. Restoration of the right to strike and lockout within the limits of the labour law.

5. Encouragement of collaboration in the economic and social field between free, strong and independent organisations of employers and workers.

The report also suggested measures to improve Venezuela's social security legislation and its labour inspection services.

The report suggested that the workers' and employers' organisations could themselves contribute to the re-establishment of normal industrial relations in the country.

It said the mission considered the employers should "endeavour without delay to set up free representative organisations, the absence of which constitutes a regrettable gap in the social structure" of Venezuela.

The mission also considered, the report declared, that "the trade union officials might, to such a degree as is possible, protect the unions from the vicissitudes of political life and enhance their prestige and the effectiveness of their action by drawing a

clearer demarcation between their purely trade union activities and their political activities..”

“The mission is convinced,” the report concluded, “that if the Venezuelan Government were to adopt the recommendations

which it has put forward a secure foundation would be laid for the gradual development in Venezuela of a free trade union movement and a body of social legislation corresponding to the needs and aspirations of the Venezuelan people.”

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

(FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION)

The Indian Conference of Social Work will be holding its fourth annual session between December 22 and 26, 1950, at Jamshedpur. Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, Minister for Public Works and Housing, Government of Bombay, and President of the Conference, will preside over the session. The Conference will be attended by delegates from all parts of the country, who are actively associated with social work agencies and organisations.

After inauguration by the President, the session will be split up into four sections: (1) *Rural Reconstruction and Welfare*, (2) *Health Services and Social Welfare*, (3) *the University and National Social Services*, and (4) *Public Welfare*. The proceedings of each section will be guided by a chairman. Dr. Ralph Keithahn of Gandhigram, South India, is the chairman of the first section and Dr. P. V. Cherian of Madras of the second, while Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao and Dr. K. C. K. E. Raja of Delhi are in charge of the third and fourth sections respectively.

Papers by specialists will be read on various aspects of social work, such as, *Women and Child Welfare Services, Health Insurance and Medical Services, Social Services and University Students, Public Welfare at the National, State and Municipal levels, etc.* There will then be discussions on the papers by delegates in each section.

An attractive feature of this year's session

of the Conference is a Posters and Photographs Exhibition on various themes of social work and public welfare in the country. Artists and photographers from all over India have been invited to participate in this Exhibition.

In conjunction with the session of the Indian Conference of Social Work, there will also be a special conference, in co-operation with the Government of India, from 19 to 21 December, 1950, of experts from the United Nations and the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation on the “Problems of Physically Handicapped Children”, with special reference to the needs of India and other countries in South East Asia. Representatives of international agencies, like the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, have been invited and are likely to attend.

This year's session of the Indian Conference of Social Work will, therefore, not only afford opportunities for exchange of views and sharing of experience and knowledge in the field of social work, but will also open up new avenues of establishing contact with experts in India and abroad. The papers read and discussed will also aid professional social workers in the country to evaluate their past achievements and plan their future programmes.

BOOK REVIEWS

A Programme for Personnel Administration: By J. J. Evans (McGrow Hill Book Company, New York & London Rs. 8/12. 1945)

This book has developed out of the assignment given to the author in which he was asked to reorganize and develop the personnel department of Armstrong Cork Company. Being a person connected with production up to that moment, the author had not any adequate idea about the programme. But, he was given the opportunity and he had to play his part.

He had to search how the department was operating, and what principles and practices, which proved good were missing. He wanted to know whether there was any standard pattern of personnel administration in industry, what was the scope of its activities and its proper place in industrial organization, what was the nature of its operating relationships with the other divisions of the organization, what constituted a good personnel man, and how the effectiveness of a personnel department was measured. The author hopes that the intervening years (1937-45) have shed some light on this important and elusive subject. "If this is free", writes Mr. Evans in his preface, "and there is anything of possible value learned that can be presented on paper to my fellow travellers along this indefinitely defined trail, if something of the philosophy and the spirit that must activate a successful personnel programme can be captured and written, then this effort is worth while".

The book contains ten chapters and each one deals with a separate phase of the programme of Personnel Administration. In the chapter, 'What's in a name?', Mr. Evans stresses the importance of the uniform descriptive titles as confusing titles fail to point out the exact functions. Moreover, uniform descriptive titles not only prove

useful, but their adoption means development of this field along more uniform lines. The author states that there is no standard pattern of personnel administration in industry. One should study the needs of one's own particular organisation and then cut the cloth to fit the pattern.

According to the author, one major objective of Personnel Administration is to see that the enterprise is so maintained that the persons who make up an organization desire to continue membership in it and that its reputation among those not directly connected with it is an enviable one.

If Personnel Administration were subjected to subdivision, these major areas would be found: 1. Personnel Relations, 2. Contractual Labour Relations, 3. Public Relations. An organization does not have or escape these problems with the possible exception of the second on the basis of its size. The problems appear wherever one or more persons are employed and they are basically the same irrespective of an organization.

Looking to the responsibilities to be administered, under personnel relations, the logical first step is 'employment'. For this, one has to institute and then to maintain co-operative, friendly and intelligent relations with sources of employees. The next functions are 'Recruitment and selection'. Circumstances and conditions differ among organizations, so that a procedure that works well in one instance may be ill adapted to another. So one must choose one's own pattern. The third function is 'placement'. The individual having been procured and selected must now be correctly placed in the organization.

The second responsibility is 'Training'. It is composed of four primary areas.

These are, 1. Induction, 2. Skill or job knowledge, 3. Supervisory training and 4. Executive training. Induction further covers four main topics, 1. Introduction to the organization as a whole, 2. the factory, office or other unit in which he will be located, 3. the department or section in which he will work and 4. the job on which he will be employed. His introduction should not be confined to rules and regulations only.

Mr. Evans, then, states 'Personnel Inventory' as the third responsibility. He does not believe in 'Merit Rating' as it is practised to day. According to him, the terminology itself is bad to start with, and the methods so far developed fall far short of the true goal of 'Personnel Inventory'. For an effective Personnel Inventory, he suggests the following objective: "To produce through written analysis and interview, maximum understanding between supervisor and individual and to assist in developing each member of the organization to his highest effectiveness, to the end that his abilities are utilized to his own best interest and those of the organization as a whole".

The fourth major field of interest is "Employee Services, Activities and Security". The phrase—Employee service—needs no explanation; however, it must be remembered that people not only want fair pay for the work performed best but there is always a desire to be recognised. They want to be treated as individuals, as members of the team.

Personal satisfaction is not possible in the absence of an effective two way communication, and an "open door policy" is always helpful to the organization. Activities fall into four natural groups—Physical, cultural, social and outings. Each organization must do its own job of surveying potentialities, interests, needs, community

conditions, and facilities that are available and those that can be made available. Employee security covers the programmes, such as, organised safety plans, employee saving plans, termination allowances, guaranteed work, guaranteed income, etc.

The fifth and last major area of Personnel Relations is "Research and planning". This area includes knowledge of legislation, regulation and interpretation. A reasonable knowledge of economic and social trends is also essential to anticipate attitudes, and conditions. Knowledge of employee reaction as well as the techniques and programmes employed in other organizations is an asset in apprising the effectiveness of our own.

While discussing qualities most desired in a personnel contact man, Mr. Evans has given 18 check points. He is not prepared to select a man if he (1) talks with too great facility, (2) lacks ability to organize his thoughts, (3) is not a patient listener, (4) cannot laugh at himself, (5) wants to be wealthy, (6) "does not grow", having painstakingly developed the solution to the other fellow's problem, (7) shies away from detail work, (8) does not have appreciation of industrial economics, (9) people do not have a desire to confide in him, (10) is not in sympathy with the capitalistic system, although quite aware of its shortcomings, (11) fails to recommend disciplinary action for a man when the situation warrants it, (12) cannot say "No" acceptably, (13) feels he is an expert in the field, (14) does not like children, (15) is not ingenious, (16) cannot "take it", (17) is not satisfied to have the other fellow get the lion's share of glory, and (18) is not a comfortable visitor.

According to the author, such men are not the product of particular curriculum but they emerge. Technical knowledge of personnel "modus operandi" can be acquired

in a reasonable length of time by an individual properly qualified, after he has been picked. But, of course, he must be an individual, who as a result of personal experience, understands and appreciates human reactions at all the levels of the organization.

Mr. Evans agrees that a Personnel Contact Man must have a pleasing personality, patience, diplomacy, persuasiveness, ingenuity, imagination, power of expression, good business judgement, a broad knowledge of Personnel Administration, and the ability to gain and hold the respect of all persons with whom he is associated.

The personnel man should occupy a staff position and should be required to sell his 'stuff' on its own merits. In many respects, it is an exceedingly tough job, because many of his 'sales' have to be made to persons occupying supervisory positions.

The author, after studying the programmes and practices now being followed in this field, concludes that top management has

not yet reached unanimity of opinion as to what it should want from its personnel department. He submits that management could turn its attention to a no more important project than to determine the answer to this vital question.

Mr. Evans has intentionally avoided an academic text book type presentation of the subject matter and has written the book in simple understandable language. Mr. A. E. David, President, American Management Association, while introducing the book, has aptly remarked, "This is a book that will remain unique in Personnel Administration literature for many years to come. Mr. Evans has performed a service of incomparable value to industry. There are thousands of executives in management today who will benefit from this experience."

For a fuller grasp of Personnel Administration, this is an absolutely 'must read book' for students of industrial relations and personnel management.

S. C. Rao.

TEAM-WORK IN INDUSTRY

By F. J. Burns Morton. (Chapman & Hall, London, Sh. 18.)

We are living in an age in which economic exploitation has become the right of a few, communal and class hatred predominate, corruption and nepotism have taken roots in industry, racial discrimination still rules, poverty is the lot of ignorant and innocent millions, moral degradation has reached its nadir, strikes, lockouts and wars have become the order of the day and peace has become a mirage to many of us. And now Mr. Morton comes out with his book of peace, progress and prosperity.

Mr. Morton preaches a new method of organisation, a new technique of administration and a new scheme for teamwork. He

writes as an experienced industrial manager and not as a technician. A psychologist by inclination and a philosopher by experience, he tries to solve the problems of modern industry by taking a humanitarian outlook, combined with scientific analysis. He advocates practical and positive discipline; and insists that the technique of giving orders is more important than even the technical import of such orders. He looks to those many incentives to work which are not financial in origin and believes that training and education at work, for work and through work are more vital than any or all of those heterogeneous activities, generally called 'wel-

far', which alone can never achieve the same results.

He emphasises the human factor more than any other in building up an industry. Men possess great potentialities and they are held back by management. The problem before management is how to stimulate men to do their best both as operatives and as executives. To create a state when men work efficiently as individuals and effectively as a group is a matter vital to industry. All decisions of management whether technical or commercial depend ultimately on the human factor. Mr. Morton starts with an account of industrial growth and passing through the channels of individual economy and planned society, reaches industrial democracy.

He draws a picture of industrial democracy as one in which liberty is not licence and increasing personal liberty becomes integrated with growing personal responsibility. He advocates the law of understanding human nature which can be changed through efforts. He shatters to pieces the arguments of those who hold the view that human nature cannot be changed, by his powerful logic and ample historical material. Man is a social animal, a product of society. He reflects his surroundings both human and material. His behaviour is determined by past experience and present circumstances. Dirty, dark and unhealthy working conditions produce similar habits in workers. He explodes the theory of instinct and critically examines the theories propounded by Freud, Adler, Watson and advocates the conclusion reached by experimental psychologists like Charles Mayers, William Brown, Cyril Burt, Thorndike, and Ballard.

Mr. Morton advocates healthy competition. He pleads for the creation of common

understanding between superior and subordinate as well as among those of the same status. A clear aim and proved method are essential for bringing about effective teamwork. We must inspire confidence and get people to think, feel and act with us. Mr. Morton discriminates between co-operation and teamwork and upholds the latter. Co-operation, according to him, is a complex thing, built up of many related factors. There is little point in having joint production committees to deal with grievances after they have arisen, if the causes are not tackled and removed. Co-operation is a continuous state of being; its is a delicate indication of feeling, existing at any one time—difficult to improve, easy to destroy. Joint committees provide a temporary expedient rather than a permanent solution; they are applied occasionally rather than continuously they are regarded as procedures rather than policies; they are superficial and not fundamental. He explains the behaviours and misunderstandings of employers and employees. The employer thinks he is paying operatives who want as much as they can get for as little as they can do. The employees feel the company wants to pay as little as it can and get as much as it can. Better understanding can result only from a willingness to work together. Better understanding is an emotional rather than an economic response. It calls for sympathy, consideration, comprehensiveness and consistency. He defines team-work as the continuous condition of working together which makes the most of circumstances, equipment and persons both individually and collectively in the common interest of the group. He points out the dark side of individualism which has long held sway over our industrial organisations, and encourages teamwork spirit. He further distinguishes between driving and leading and points out the salient features of each. Leading is dis-

tinguished by self-confidence born of real understanding both of men and of their work. Its approach is one of open-mindedness, where the personal authority strives to appreciate and to solve the problems of both persons and personnel. He gives us the essentials of a team, i.e., definite policy, able leadership, planned organisation, internal harmony, continuity. Success or failure depends mainly upon leadership. The responsibility for future harmony in industry lies with those in authority and their delegated supervisors, who by their methods and manners can set men against each other or bring them together in an effective and efficient team. Mr. Morton explains the meaning of the most complicated work—job satisfaction in a simple way—and suggests the way to achieve the same. Interest in work must be created. Employees have to be persuaded and not forced. The freedom of selection should be given to the worker regarding the nature of work. Such persons are inclined to be more interested in the work they do than in the remuneration they receive. Job satisfaction is indicated when workers are determined to execute their duties efficiently, when they think collectively in terms of 'we' rather than 'I'; react spontaneously to discipline and co-operation; and are cheerful and enthusiastic about their jobs. He gives some of the causes of employee dissatisfaction and lack of team-work: (1) poor organisation, (2) ineffective management, (3) inconsiderate supervision, (4) unsuitable working conditions, (5) absence of interest in work and (6) unfriendly associations. He gives a number of results of employee attitude tests conducted by Hoppock, Hall and Lock, Wyatt and Langdone, etc. Job satisfaction can be achieved by creating job enthusiasm. If insecurity is a constant menace, many methods exist where a large measure of certainty and regular employment can be

created. Where there is serious dissatisfaction with supervision, steps should be taken either to train foremen in new methods or to effect replacements. Many of the irritations suffered by employees arise more from misunderstanding than from any other cause. Although job enthusiasm emanates from the employee, it is maintained largely by competent management which manifests itself in countless precautions for and considerations of the employee, by establishing precise selection of staff and proper placement, introducing new workers; encouraging promotions; making jobs interesting; taking safety precautions; dealing with grievances and removing misunderstandings. From the point of view of building up group efficiency and job satisfaction, a disgruntled person is a menace and a liability. Mr. Morton, therefore, suggests occupational therapy to such maladjusted workers.

He further tackles the problem of selection of employees, methods of selection and causes and cure of maladjustments. Mr. Morton does not create a Utopia of his own, but wants to suggest a practical solution for the existing problems. He is of the opinion that, with a noble mind and a kind heart, we can solve many of our problems without much difficulty. He gives a number of selection tests and also points out their drawbacks. He says that selection tests are devised to measure innate individual differences and not acquired skills; they are confined to fundamental requirements in mental and manual movements. But he does not undervalue them. He is of definite opinion that they are useful in selection for training and promotion. He has also given the classification of vocations according to degree of intelligence required. He emphasises the importance of training. As new processes, procedures and principles are discovered, training becomes necessary. "The aim of education is not knowledge

but action", says Mr. Morton. He strongly holds the view that men can be improved through training. Training for team-work not only requires the accurate and intensive instruction in narrow technical skills, but also involves the education of the employee in the broader issues, which make possible creation of interest in work and co-operation with other workers. Team-work cannot be assured by the narrow but highly trained specialists alone; it requires also those broadening influences of personality which ensure sound and sensible acquaintance with factory affairs as well as social changes. He also gives a plan of teaching job-selection. (p. 108)

He gives a detailed plan for training in leadership. The training department must be fully alive to changes in process and the progress of trainees in practice. A continuous follow-up of newly placed employees will enable a check to be made on methods of training and practice in selection. With the advent of films, descriptive guides and other media, training can be standardised and effectively systematised. He suggests a short course for training the employees to run an industry in team spirit. (1) Principles of organisation, (2) Group integration, (3) Employee attitudes, (4) Training operatives, (5) Staff development, (6) Giving orders, (7) Non-financial incentives, (7) Planned development, (8) Team-work and (9) Executive proficiency. The plan includes internal conferences, training within the industry and outside. Mr. Morton further discusses the part played by incentives in modern industry for creating team-work spirit. He gives two types of incentives—one, financial and the other, non-financial. They are closely inter-related aspects of the same policy of appeal to each individual to strive to the full towards group work. He further explains the importance of time study in the modern industrial development.

Time study analysis not only eliminates unnecessary processes, relieves heavy and irksome movements, introduces proper rest periods, and improves working conditions, but also invariably develops new skills and encourages more precise selection. It permits the physical and psychological requirements of the job to be determined precisely. It is necessary to stress that time study analysis is carried out primarily to determine the time required by the average person for a standard performance.

Financial incentives help to encourage maximum productivity, to avoid undue wear and tear of plant, equipment or man-power and provide a fair reward for special effort. Non-financial incentives are of the nature of promotion, good working conditions, fair justice. (p. 135). Team-work demands interference, not with those matters which concern the private lives of individuals, but with the causes which prevent effective co-operation in the working group. Once the policy of team-work is known and declared, employees' personal resentment is likely to diminish for men want to co-operate, provided the essential conditions for working together have been established.

A team without a leader is just like a plane without a pilot. A leader is the pilot who steers his way through the clouds of misunderstandings, hatred, competition and reaches the destiny of peace and happiness. Mr. Morton discusses the types of leadership and differentiates the old and new leadership. He defines leadership as highly competent direction of the activity of subordinates, the general interests of the company as a whole towards a goal acceptable to the community in general and of vital interest to the group in particular, so that each individual is influenced to work willingly, effectively and harmoniously. Leadership signifies a new approach and a new

technique of administrative efficiency. Leadership is not something forced on an unreceptive staff, but something which arises out of prevailing circumstances. Further, leadership is not confined to one person in a business but exists and must be developed to the foremen and charge-hands. The new leadership aspect of modern business is attributable to the rise of the professional administrator. Energy must be the first essential of leadership. Ability not only to plan and guide the work of others but also to view each action as it affects those concerned. The intellectual qualities of the leader should be superior to those possessed by anyone in the group. He should have quick, keen discerning intelligence. The growing strength of organised labour and the greater independence of staff demands the negotiating type of leader rather than the autocratic type.

Psychology and personality constitute at least 50 per cent of the requirements for success as an executive. In industry, this psychological ability means 75% of the necessary equipment. The ability to get people to work together is of great importance. Mr. Morton gives advice on the methods of supervision and of issuing orders to subordinates. He regards that criticising a person before others, especially before

subordinates, is a serious error in administration. Rewarding commendable work is one of the techniques of supervision. A lack of understanding as to how orders are to be issued, the failure to encourage suggestions and the unwillingness to follow up and assess performance cause discontent and lack of interest. The nature of order should vary according to the people to whom it is issued. The purpose of an order, according to him, is to get the desired results. Mr. Morton advocates discipline and high moral character. He thinks that self-discipline is the best way of teaching discipline. Discipline does not imply rudeness or unreasonable strictness. Discipline should not be forced from outside but should be made to spring from within.

Lastly he gives the picture of an ideal industry, industry of the people, for the people and by the people.

Mr. Morton has done a yeoman service to industrial peace by writing this book. This book is extremely helpful to all those who are concerned with industry. He has handled the most difficult problem in an extremely simple way. Lucidity of style and clarity of thought and expression characterise the book. No serious student of industrial problems can afford to miss this book.

Ram Belavadi.

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LABOUR JURISPRUDENCE—A REVIEW

V. JAGANNADHAM

In view of the growing conflicts between capital and labour, there has been a general quest the world over for methods of peaceful settlement of employer-employee relations. This has resulted in increasing legislation by the State for regulating methods of solving industrial problems, through a code of labour laws and a system of labour courts. In this article, the author discusses and traces their growth in the industrially advanced countries of the world.

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PART I

Labour legislation has been growing in volume and extent during the last one century. Every industrially advanced country has on its statute book a wide variety of labour laws. Since the last world war, interest in labour problems has assumed international importance. This is testified to by the large volume of Conventions and Recommendations of the International Labour Organisation. Though legislation dealing with labour problems differs from country to country due to difference in economic and social conditions, still there is a sufficient amount of unity behind the laws as to deserve the description of labour jurisprudence.

Jurisprudence is defined as the "theory or philosophy of law". Accordingly, labour jurisprudence would mean the philosophy or common principles underlying labour legislation in the industrially advanced countries. For the sake of convenience, these common principles may be studied under the following five heads: (1) Humanism, (2) Collectivism, (3) The Philosophy of National Minimum, (4) Social Peace, and (5) Social Justice. To understand more clearly, a brief description of the background of these principles and forces of labour legislation would be helpful.

Industrial Revolution and Laissez Faire.—Industrial Revolution has released numerous forces and created many problems of far-reaching importance. By way of example,

we may mention the decay of agriculture, the depopulation of villages, the growth of urban areas around factories, the growth on a mass scale of industrial wage labourers, a change in the traditional outlook on life, social values, etc. A prominent feature in all industrially advanced countries is the rise of a proletariat class of people, so called because they serve the state not with property but with *proles* (offspring). They have no other resources than the wages they obtain by the sale of their labour. Their daily or weekly wage is all their income and occasional loss of it from any risk or unemployment literally means helplessness and starvation.

The early phases of industrial development, however, coincided with a fanatic faith in the value of "*laissez faire*" philosophy. The essence of this philosophy was to "let alone" the individual without restraint either by the state or corporations. This outlook was developed as a reaction against the innumerable restraints imposed by the trade guilds and feudal system about the end of the middle ages. These restraints fettering the free enterprise and initiative of individuals stood in the way of industrial progress in its early days. The pendulum, therefore, swung to the other extreme of unfettered freedom for the individual and least possible interference from the state and the corporations. The new emphasis was upon free initiative, free enterprise, free competition, free trade and free contract. Birth as a factor determining the

status of the individual in society gave place to contract as a device for determining social relations. The employer-employee relations too were left to be determined through contract by individual bargaining and consent between the parties. Even associational activity and group bargaining were viewed with disfavour because that might lead to medieval guild tyranny. Individual bargaining and individual contract were the two characteristic features of '*laissez faire*' philosophy which influenced the political and economic policies till the middle of the nineteenth century on the continent of Europe.

Consequent upon industrial development, the labour class found itself confronted with an array of formidably adverse forces. Bargaining through individual contract placed them in a very weak and disadvantageous position against their employers. The two together, namely, the emphasis upon individual contract and the weak bargaining power of the labourers, explain the vast misery of the wage earners in the first half of the nineteenth century. Labour was placed on a footing with other factors of production and consequently, wages constituting the price of labour, were left to be determined by the law of supply and demand, higgling and bargaining power of the parties to the contract and by the principle of exploiting each factor of production to augment the profits of the employer. This outlook was responsible for low wages, long hours and inhuman conditions of work.

Even in the early days of industrialism, there were protests against the "survival of the fittest" and "let the devil take the hindmost" outlook implicit in the *laissez faire* policy. These protests were made by social reformers like Sir Robert Owen. He was himself an industrialist and a successful businessman. Unlike other industrialists,

however, he was a social visionary. He practised in his establishments what he professed and preached. At a time when there was hardly any law compelling employers to look after the welfare of labour, Sir Robert Owen followed in his business concerns the principles of shorter hours, higher wages, and vastly better conditions of work than those obtaining in the other concerns of his contemporaries. He refused to employ child labour at a time when others were freely working them for long hours even at less than six years of age. Other reformers like Charles Booth, Thomas Hodgskin, William Cobbet, etc., who were impelled by humanist motives advocated and worked for progressive labour welfare legislation. Even literary writers like Carlyle and Ruskin condemned the economic system of ruthless competition and the *laissez faire* doctrine.

The protests of these social reformers and the efforts of humanitarian employers spurred the state to abandon its doctrine of the survival of the fittest and non-interference policy and adopt a more humanistic approach to the solution of social problems. The first Factories Act of 1819, in England, was ascribed to the initiative of Sir Robert Owen. Since then a series of laws have been passed with a view to protecting labour against exploitation and promoting their welfare.

Collective Theory.—The old conception about labour as a mere factor of production soon gave way to the view that labourers are part of the citizenry whom the state should protect against exploitation and inhuman conditions of work. This change in view was brought about by the growing political consciousness and democratic principles, reflected in gradual extension of franchise to all adult citizens. Consequent upon the enfranchisement of labour, political

parties began to vie with each other in their patronage and solicitude for labour. Since then labour problems and their solution assumed a new significance and soon *laissez faire* gave way to Collectivism in England (since 1870); and other countries followed suit.

Industrial progress and the extension of franchise explain the advent and growth of Collectivism since the latter half of the 19th century. A prominent feature of this philosophy is the positive role of the state in regulating and protecting the weaker sections of the society. Under *laissez faire*, the state is concerned with enacting exceptions to the general rules of freedom of contract and under collectivist theory, with raising the standards of living of the poor working classes. In pursuance of this programme, laws were passed prohibiting the employment of children and women during night, reducing the hours of work from fourteen to eight in the day, conceding weekly and annual holidays with pay, requiring factory owners to provide adequate health and sanitary conditions and protective fencing around running machinery, etc. Further, the old prejudice against associational activity declined and trade unions were allowed to be freely formed and collective bargaining was encouraged.

Concept of National Minimum.—To protect labour against exploitation, mere regulatory legislation is not enough. Adequate opportunities have to be provided if they are to stand on their own legs and compete. To achieve this object, the concept of national minimum has been worked out. According to this concept, every person in the state must be assured of a minimum standard of living. No individual should be allowed to fall below this minimum standard. The concept of "*National minimum standard*" has developed out of an

eager desire to remove the paradox of poverty amidst plenty, resulting from the lag between social organisation and scientific development. Thanks to the application of science to industry, national income has increased by leaps and bounds but it is not followed by a corresponding equitable distribution and rise in the standard of life of the masses. With a view to resolve this anomaly, industrially advanced states have adopted the policy of national minimum. An examination of this policy shows that it benefits to a great extent the industrial and other labouring classes.

In the early days, the concept of national minimum was given effect to without any conscious or consistent philosophy and many legislative measures were enacted which secured protection against loss of income due to industrial risks or unemployment. The minimum wage legislation is an obvious example of the national minimum concept. Under this, the wages of the various types of labourers are to be fixed by the prescribed machinery after taking into consideration the capacity of the industry to pay and the cost of living figures. While minimum wage legislation ensures a minimum income during employment, protection against involuntary loss of wage is equally necessary. Such loss occurs owing to disability caused by injury, sickness, disease, old age, or unemployment. The Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Sickness Insurance and Maternity Benefit laws, the Old Age Pensions or Assistance laws, the Unemployment Insurance or Assistance laws are all aimed at protecting workers against involuntary loss of wages. To make this protection more comprehensive, dependants of workers are also covered in many cases by supplemental benefits and by Orphan's and Widow's pension or assistance schemes, family allowances, funeral benefits etc.

Social Security and Assistance.—This piecemeal and haphazard development in labour legislation has recently been given a new turn and conscious and consistent philosophy of social security is being evolved. The following description about the objects of social security may in this connection be read with interest: "Social Security is the security that society furnishes through appropriate organisations against certain risks to which its members are exposed. These risks are essentially contingencies against which the individual of small means cannot effectively provide by his own ability or foresight alone or even in private combination with his fellows. It is characteristic of these contingencies that they imperil the ability of the working man to support himself and his dependants in health and decency. Accordingly, as the state is the association of citizens which exists for the sake of their general well-being, it is a proper function of the state to promote social security. While all state policy has some bearing on social security, it is convenient to regard as social security services only such schemes as provide the citizens with benefits designed to prevent or cure disease, to support him when unable to earn and to restore him to gainful activity."¹

Till recently, disease, want etc. have been met by the family, private philanthropy, and religious institutions. In an industrial society, the declining faith in religion, the disintegration of the traditional family structure and the inadequacy of private charity to cope up with the vast problem of poverty, have compelled a search for effective ways of providing security as a matter of right and in a manner consistent with the democratic conception of the dignity of individual personality. This search gradually bore fruit in the double decked system of social

security comprising social insurance and assistance. While social insurance may be described as "compulsory mutual aid", proportioned to contributions, social assistance may be described as "rationalisation of institutional relief" without reference to contributions but with reference to need. Social security is an innovation in the administration of public relief and hence it is described as "the magic of averages brought to the rescue of millions". Social security has come to be identified with national minimum policy and is described to include the following: "National minimum (as social security has come to be called in England) involves that the citizen of democracy should be guaranteed as of right enough food to maintain him in health. He should be assured of minimum standard of shelter, clothing and fuel. He should be given full and equal opportunities of education. He should have leisure and facilities for enjoying it. He should be secured against the risk of unemployment, ill-health and old age. Above all the presence of children should not be allowed to bring with it misery for the parents, deprivation for the children and poverty for all. All these things inhere in the individual as his citizen's rights".² In other words, the concept of national minimum implies community protection to every individual as a matter of right "from womb to tomb" to that large mass of people with low incomes who "live out their days in the twilight of narrow necessity and unending struggle". "That poverty anywhere constitutes danger to prosperity everywhere" is implicit in the recognition of the national minimum policy.

Conflict of Labour and Capital.—Labour jurisprudence, which began its career under humanism developed under collectivism and national minimum philosophy. But it was

¹ Approaches to Social security I.L.O. p. 80.

² C. F. Report on Health Insurance for Industrial Workers in India: B. P. Adarkar p. 12

still incomplete owing to the conflict of interests between labour and capital. Its incompleteness is partly the cause of conflicts between the two. As industrialisation advanced and capital earned profits, labour too aspired for higher standards and both so far have not found a suitable compromising ground. These conflicts affect the standards of the community and endanger peace in society. Conflicts between capital and labour may sometimes openly express themselves in serious strikes and lockouts resulting in diminished production and even destruction of property. Strike is one form of civil war which is likely to spread as a contagion and threaten the peace and prosperity of the community. So, legislation dealing with wages and conditions of work as forming the causes of disputes, collective bargaining, conciliation and arbitration as forming the machinery for peaceful settlement of disputes have their basis in the desire to maintain social peace. Peace and solidarity in society are conditions precedent for prosperity and enjoyment of rights. Security is as much necessary as social security for the happiness of all.

While social peace dictates legislation for peaceful settlement of disputes, social justice requires legislation aimed at preventing or narrowing down the range of disputes to as few a number of matters as possible. Justice is defined as "such an adjustment of the conflicting interests of the citizens of the nation as will interfere least with and contribute most to the strength of the nation". Social justice aims at extending the above definition to resolve the conflicts between groups and classes in the society. The doctrine of social justice influenced the course of labour jurisprudence by giving rise to such schemes and experiments as democratisation of industry, share in the management of industry for labour, profit-

sharing, nationalisation of industries and so on.

All the above principles are behind the labour codes of industrially advanced countries. It is too premature to say that labour jurisprudence has attained the same definiteness or universality or unanimity in understanding as ordinary jurisprudence. But it may be unhesitatingly said that it is on the road to reach such a style.

International Labour Organization.—In this process, the creation and development since 1919 of the International Labour Organisation as a special agency of the League of Nations and the United Nations has ushered in a new era in the growth of labour jurisprudence. Though the I. L. O. was created in 1919, some attempts had been made much earlier in the nineteenth century to regulate labour conditions by international treaties. Soon after the Napoleonic Wars, Sir Robert Owen pleaded at the Aix-La-Chapelle conference for the international regulation of labour. The first International Labour Conference was held in 1890. The International Labour Congress met in 1897 and formed the International Association for Labour Legislation. The Labour Conferences at Berne in 1905 and 1906 are notable in so far as they laid the foundation of international labour jurisprudence. These conferences drew up two conventions: (1) for prohibiting night work for women and (2) for prohibiting the use of white phosphorous in the manufacture of matches. During the first World War, international outlook developed in all spheres of life. In 1916 the Leeds Conference of the General Federation of Trade Unions resolved: "The Treaty of Peace must place beyond the reach of the capitalistic international competition and secure for the workers of all countries, a minimum of moral and material guarantees regarding the right to work, the right

to organize, regulation of imported labour, social insurance, hours of work and the health and safety of the workers." The Conference recommended the establishment of an International Labour Office to gather material regarding labour legislation. The Paris Peace Conference appointed a commission on International Labour Legislation on the 31st January 1919 which framed the constitution of the I. L. O.

The purpose of the I. L. O. is to promote social justice in all countries of the world. To this end, it collects facts about labour and social conditions, formulates minimum international standards and supervises their national application. A brief reference to its machinery and work would help to understand its significance in the development of labour jurisprudence.

The organisation has a governing body called the Executive Council of the I. L. O. It consists of sixteen Government representatives, eight representatives of management and eight of labour. The International Labour Office acts as the Secretariat of the Organisation. The office is a world information centre and publishing house on labour and social questions. A third component is the International Labour Conference, which is a world parliament for labour. Each national delegation to the annual meetings comprises four delegates, two representing government, one representing management and one labour; each of these three sections speaks and votes independently, so that all points of view find full expression.

The conference adopts minimum international standards which are formulated in special international treaties called conventions and in recommendations. Since the first conference in 1919, 80 conventions, and a similar number of recommendations have been adopted. These deal with hours of work, paid vacations, women's work, pro-

tection of children, prevention of and compensation for industrial accidents, insurance against unemployment, sickness, old age and death, colonial labour problems and conditions of seamen, etc. These were published in the form of an "International Labour Code" in 1941.

The decisions of the conference are not automatically binding. Governments must submit the conference standards to their national legislatures. If a legislature accepts a convention, the government is bound to apply the convention and to submit an annual report showing how it is applying it. It is scrutinised by special I. L. O. committees. The procedure for adoption thus amply satisfies national sovereignty. Sometimes, even conventions are so framed as to suit differences in the economic development of the member countries.

The Organisation aims at the progressive stabilisation of labour conditions. The method is to bring about the universal adoption of a minimum standard as a first step and then to endeavour gradually to raise conditions to the level already attained by the leading industrial states. It is of course granted that these states would maintain their lead only in so far as they constantly seek to improve their own labour conditions and point the way to countries lagging behind.

During and after the second World War, the aims and objects of the I. L. O. have been restated with renewed vigour and emphasis. The Philadelphia Conference in 1944 adopted a Declaration affirming the primacy of social objective in national and international policy. "That poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere" is the cardinal truth reiterated in the conference. While suggesting remedies the Declaration asserts that "all human beings irrespective of race, creed or sex, have

the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity." By an agreement which was ratified by the Montreal Conference in 1946 and subsequently by the U. N. O. General Assembly, the International Labour Organisation has entered into relationship with the U. N. O. as a specialised agency. The I. L. O. has thus been steadily and successfully pursuing its objects; and its influence on the progress of labour legislation of every nation cannot be overestimated. It is no exaggeration to say that if labour jurisprudence reached its present size, significance and stature in the national codes and in the international councils, it is largely on account of the work of the International Labour Organisation.

PART II

The foregoing description deals with the principles and forces behind the development of labour jurisprudence. But jurisprudence without effective judicial machinery is bound to be incomplete and ineffective. A separate labour judiciary is necessary and is in process of development. For two reasons, the ordinary judicial machinery is not adequate to give effect to labour laws: (1) labour legislation is to some extent technical; and (2) the courts here have to deal with unascertained rights and obligations surrounded by a special type of ideas and ideologies. We have already seen how labour jurisprudence is in process of evolution. The rights and obligations of employers and employees in industry are not so clearcut as to be easily enforceable in ordinary courts of law. Labour laws so far enacted are the fruit of hard and prolonged struggle which is still going on. The labour disputes are in most cases for definition and expansion of rights rather than for assertion and interpretation of existing rights.

Very often political factors are also involved. The right to vote coupled with the large number of working class population inspires them to secure redress of their grievances through the quick process of political and administrative action rather than through the laying judicial process.

While asserting the need for a separate judicial machinery, we should not overlook nor underestimate the difficulties in the way of its development. In the first place, labour disputes are not wholly possible of judicial settlement because they are partly political in nature. Further, labour disputes are not like quarrels between private individuals but are part of a continuous struggle between two groups or classes in the community. This struggle is often described as class war. "Strike" and "Lockout" are the weapons of labourers and employers respectively. Strikes and lockouts in vital industries affect the life of the community for, both lead to curtailment in production, reduction in national income and ultimate destruction of normal community life. A frequent use of these weapons undermines the foundations of the State because it means civil war in the economic sphere. [Though the issues are economic, the weapons are insidious and the consequences are disastrous to the community.

Role of the State.—Under the conditions, the role of the State is delicate. State is the guardian of peace and welfare of the community. It cannot remain indifferent while two classes are warring among themselves for that would mean abdication of its role as the guardian of peace. It cannot take sides for, to favour one is to alienate the sympathies of the other. It may be argued that on whichever side lies justice, the state should support it. This is to beg the question because the dispute is as to what constitutes justice; and further, justice is to some extent subjec-

tive. The struggle is not for asserting approved rights but for defining and extending the area of social justice.

In view of these difficulties in deciding labour disputes through judicial means, two radical remedies have been suggested. They are: (1) withdrawal of the right to strike and (2) nationalisation of industries. Though these two are not quite germane to the topic under discussion, they merit our attention because they go to the root of industrial organisation in the modern community.

Right to Strike.—The right to strike was denied under the influence of the *laissez faire doctrine* during the early stages of industrial development. All collective action was then viewed with the utmost suspicion and was described as conspiracy. But the appalling misery and the unequal bargaining power of labourers, convinced the statesmen of the collectivistic era to concede the right of collective bargaining and collective action for getting redressal of their grievances. The growing political status of the labourers in the nineteenth century led to a firm recognition of the right to strike as one of the fundamental rights of the working class citizens.

Very soon however, the dangers and possibilities of mischievous use of the strike weapon became evident. The right to strike work has been used by labourers for proper and improper purposes as well. Sometimes politicians unhesitatingly used it as a political weapon to capture state power. The potential dangers of a general strike have become too manifest. The use of the right to strike, not for securing redress of legitimate grievances of workers in industry but as a political weapon led to a statutory imposition of many restrictions upon the exercise of the right, such as, prohibition of general and lightning strikes, provision for long period of notice before strikes in the public

utility service industries, etc. Some even advocate the prohibition of the right to strike. This suggestion is occasionally given effect to as for instance, during periods of emergency, such as, war or economic crisis. But a general prohibition of the right during peace time is regarded by many as a denial of freedom of collective action and curtailment of strength for collective bargaining of labourers.

However dangerous the weapon of strike may be, and however convincing the arguments in favour of the prohibition of the right to strike may appear to be, expediency dictates a different course. It is always desirable to prevent occasions for abuse of the right than an outright prohibition of the right. In this context, it is wise for the modern state to follow the footsteps of its earliest predecessors in developing the ordinary judiciary. Faced with the right of private vengeance and group revenge, the earliest states developed ordinary courts side by side and gradually reached the present condition. In a similar way, it is desirable to encourage peaceful settlement of differences and disputes through organised tribunals rather than by resorting to open conflicts. The democratic method of persuading and convincing is preferable to the police method of coercion.

Nationalization of Industries.—The other suggestion, namely, nationalization of industries also bristles with numerous difficulties. Labourers favour government ownership and management of industries for, under government, unlike under private management, conditions of work would be more just and humane. Nationalized industries would be managed not for self-interest but for service, and private profit motive would be replaced by public welfare motive. While under private management each factor of production, including labour, is exploited

for augmenting the profits of the employer, under government management welfare of labour would be a charge upon the industry and would have precedence over the profit incentive.

The above hopes are to a large extent justified. But recent experience in nationalized industries in countries like England shows that neither strikes nor causes for strikes would disappear soon after nationalization. Prof. H. S. Kirkaldy writes, "There can be no greater fallacy than to assume that by some alteration in the ownership and control of industry—whether the ownership be public or private—the problem of industrial relations can be solved overnight."³ Moreover there is another danger under state ownership. Government ceases to be an impartial balance holder and becomes a party to the dispute. In a state with nationalized industries, the government which also becomes the employer of labour on a large scale, legislates as well as enforces the labour laws. There is a danger that in case a party hostile to labour comes into power, it may carry out such legislation as would safeguard its position as employer.

The government may sometimes be compelled to adopt policies like wage cuts under pressure of international forces. If these are not agreeable to labour the remedy for them would be to resort to strikes (which means frustration of the object of nationalization) or seek redress through the device of defeating the government at the polls and installing in power a party more favourable to their demands. The second is of course a legitimate and peaceful remedy but it is doubtful whether for every dispute against government as an employer, change of government is either desirable or possible. It may be answered that it is not the government but a Statutory Board of Directors,

who would carry on the management of the nationalized industries. Even then, the government cannot absolve itself of the responsibility for the management of industries by the Board. Whatever be the form, the government would be held responsible for the decisions of the Board and strike or political action will be directed against the government.

Agreement, Conciliation and Arbitration.

—Neither prohibition of the right to strike nor nationalization of industries seems to be a practicable or a possible solution for industrial disputes. For over a century, the problem of industrial relations has been engaging the attention of many, and several methods have been pursued. Among these may be mentioned (1) settlement by mutual agreement, (2) by conciliation and (3) by arbitration. These methods have worked with varying results in different countries. A brief review of the application of these methods in a few important countries would not be out of place.

England.—The working of these methods in England which was the first country to develop industrially provides an interesting study. England has from the beginning favoured mutual agreement between employers and workers in the industry as the best method of solving industrial disputes. To-day, as before, voluntary trade agreements govern industrial relations over a large field. There are about 115 Joint Industrial Councils composed of representatives of both sides of the industry, with in some cases an independent chairman dealing with a wide range of subjects affecting the industry concerned. Where they fail to reach agreement, they may refer the question to an independent arbitrator or adopt any of the methods provided under the Industrial Courts Act.

³ The Spirit of Industrial Relations : H. S. Kirkaldy, p. 7.

By virtue of authority under the Conciliation Act of 1896 and Industrial Courts Act of 1919, the Minister of Labour has certain powers to assist industry to resolve disputes which could not be disposed of by voluntary means. To assist industry by conciliation, a staff of conciliation officers form part of the Ministry of Labour. Their duties are to keep in touch both the course of relations between employers and workers at national, district and in some cases factory level and to assist them if requested, to settle their problems by joint discussion and negotiation. Disputes which cannot be settled in this way may at the request of both parties, be referred to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator or an *ad hoc* Board of Arbitration or by the Industrial Court—a permanent tribunal established under the Industrial Tribunals Act.

As a wartime measure, a National Arbitration Tribunal was created which still exists to-day. Disputes which are not otherwise disposed of are referred to this Tribunal by the Minister of Labour if a party to the dispute brings the matter to his notice. The decisions of the Tribunal are legally binding on both the parties. If a dispute occurs or is apprehended which is not susceptible of settlement by any of the above methods, the Minister may also appoint a court of inquiry or committee of investigation. The reports of such bodies are primarily for the information of Parliament and of the Public. Though they are not binding on the parties any recommendation made in such reports is normally accepted as a basis for settlement of the differences.

America.—In the United States of America, the federal nature of the constitution, the doctrine of judicial review, and the influence of individualism prevented the growth of strong trade unions, collective bargaining and strikes till the early years of this century. The Sherman Anti-Trust

laws dealt a serious blow to trade union movement. It was sought to be remedied by the Clayton Act but its object was frustrated by defective drafting and adverse judicial interpretation. It is only since 1939 when Norris-La Guardia Act was passed that organized labour has been confident of its collective strength. In the U. S. A., to-day collective bargaining is the predominant method of arranging the terms of employment in the more important industries.

This development, however, raised a number of new problems. As in other countries, so in the U. S. A. also, settlement of disputes by mutual agreement is not possible in all cases. The following methods have therefore been developed to help prevention of or else peaceful settlement of disputes. Attempts to settle disputes through mediation and arbitration are common. In addition to attempts by individual states to maintain industrial peace, the Federal Government created in 1913 a conciliation section in the newly created Labour Department. The conciliation service was set up under a Director who was to appoint Commissioners of Conciliation in labour disputes whenever the interests of industrial peace required it. A Commissioner will be sent on the request of either party and he will seek to bring about an agreement. Under the Taft-Hartley Act, the Conciliation Service was removed from the Department of Labour and organized as an independent agency—called the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service. This Agency is to offer its services upon its own motion or at the request of any party to an industrial dispute. A Labour-Management panel of twelve members is appointed, six from each side, to advise on the avoidance of industrial disputes.

Where differences are not settled by mediation, the parties may have recourse to arbitration. Arbitration may be limited

to specific issues or may be unlimited, i.e., the issues to be decided may concern every phase of the employment relation. Arbitration may involve interpretation of an existing contract or deciding terms of a new contract. Arbitration may be voluntary or compulsory, both as regards reference of dispute and binding nature of the award or one of them may be made voluntary and the other compulsory.

A passing reference may be made to the composition and powers of the arbitration tribunals in the U. S. A. Boards of Arbitration are usually composed either of an equal number of representatives from each side with one or several neutral members or entirely of outsiders. Arbitration may be conducted by permanent boards or it may be conducted by special *ad hoc* boards appointed for each dispute. Permanent boards however suffer from a serious handicap, namely, their effectiveness may be reduced if they hand down a decision resented by one of the parties. For example, it happened in the Defence Mediation Board in 1941 in the U. S. A. from which all representatives of the C. I. O. offered their resignations consequent upon the rejection of their demand for a closed shop in the captive mines. So, voluntary arbitration conducted by arbitrators drawn from permanent panels but appointed for specific disputes seems to be gaining ground in the U. S. A. By this means, an unpopular decision affects only those members of the panel who rendered it but would leave the system itself undisturbed.

The majority of the states in the U. S. A. follow the common law rule that the awards of arbitrators are not enforceable in the courts. In recent years, however, there has been a tendency to broaden the rule and the courts have increasingly enforced arbitration awards. An award may be set

aside if the court finds that it has been obtained by fraud, or if the arbitrator has exceeded his authority or has been guilty of misconduct.

Canada.—In 1907, after a disastrous and prolonged coal strike in Alberta, the Dominion Parliament passed the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act. The Act is intended to "aid in the prevention and settlement of strikes and lockouts in mines and industries connected with public utilities." It covers all controversies in concerns employing ten or more persons in coal and other mines; steam, street and electric railways; shipping, telephone and telegraph lines; and gas, electric, water and power works. Disputes in any other industry may be voluntarily referred to the government board. The Minister of Labour is the administrative authority under the Act.

The Act provides that both employers and employees in these public utility and mining industries must give at least thirty days notice of proposed changes which they contemplate making in conditions of employment. If the changes are protested against, they are not to be made and all strikes or lockouts are forbidden during the hearings under threat of fines. On the application of either party or on the initiative of the Minister of Labour, if he is satisfied that the dispute lies within the scope of the Act, a Board of three members may be constituted to deal with the dispute. This Board of Investigation must be created within fifteen days after the receipt of a written application, one member being appointed by each of the contending parties and a Chairman chosen by the two appointed. Boards are vested with extensive powers of investigation. Their duty first is to act in a mediatory capacity and, failing in that, to make an investigation and issue a report recommending terms of

settlement. The findings of a Board are not mandatory; and once the parties involved have received the report, they are free to resort to ordinary methods of industrial warfare in case the terms are unacceptable.

The object of the law which is to avert or end stoppages in industry has been mostly achieved. It is reported that out of a total of 640 disputes referred to Boards for investigation and report between 1907 and 1935, 589 or 92 per cent, were settled as a result of intervention. Though employers and labourers were originally hostile to the Act, both now support the law as its value has been realised.

New Zealand and Australia.—New Zealand was the first country to adopt in 1894 compulsory conciliation and arbitration legislation with a view to (1) preventing strikes, (2) strengthening the labour unions and (3) improving the general conditions of workers. The Act provided for registration of unions and societies of seven or more members. Only then could the unions come under the scope of the Act. The law of 1894 divided the country into eight districts and a Conciliation Board of five members was set up in each district. Of the five, two members were nominated by the unions, and two by employers, and these four selected a neutral chairman. In the event of disagreement, the governor was authorized to nominate the chairman. Conciliation Boards sought to bring about settlement in industrial disputes.

Agreements between unions and employers' associations for terms not in excess of three years were permitted. Such agreements were filed with the office of the Supreme Court and their violation was punishable with fine. A Court of Arbitration was appointed with one representative from the organized employers and one from the organized workers and a neutral party was

chosen from the judges of the Supreme Court. An award of the court was binding for three years and violations were punishable by the infliction of fine upon the offending organization and also upon individual members. Strikes were outlawed when the issues were submitted to the Board or the association was bound by a contract. By an amendment in 1908, the Conciliation Boards were replaced by Councils with their powers defined in greater detail.

The New Zealand plan of compulsory arbitration worked to the satisfaction of labour during the period of rising prices when most awards were favourable to them; but with the depression of 1907, the Court began to lower wages, with the result that strikes in violation of the awards became common. Attempts to impose very drastic penalties made the system less popular and in 1932 most of the compulsory provisions of the law were removed. However, by 1936 compulsory arbitration was restored.

Australia is another country which adopted compulsory arbitration at an early date. Under the Constitution passed in 1900, the Commonwealth Government possessed the power to legislate over conciliation and arbitration in inter-state industrial disputes. In 1901, the New South Wales government passed a law providing that all "public interest" industries must submit their labour controversies for investigation and compulsory decision to a permanent Court of Arbitration. Strikes and lockouts in these industries were forbidden. West Australia, South Australia and Queensland passed similar laws. The Commonwealth Government passed a law in 1904 under which a Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration was set up. The court had power to conciliate disputes. In case it failed, the court made an equitable award binding upon both the parties.

The Court can take note of disputes in any one of the following ways: (1) a dispute may be certified to it by the Registrar of the Court as affecting the public interest; (2) a dispute may be submitted by an industrial organisation; or (3) it may be referred to the Court by a state officer. As a rule, the Court seeks settlement by conciliation and only when that has failed does it use its arbitral power. The court is empowered to subpoena witnesses and take evidence on oath. Technical questions may be referred to an expert whose findings it may accept. Legal formalities are not binding on the Court which may follow a liberal procedure.

France.—Couseils De Prud'hommes were revived in 1806 by Napoleon. These Councils of Gentlemen are found in all of the important industrial centres in France. For many years, they considered only controversies between an employer and individual employees but by the Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1892 provision was made for the settlement of collective disputes, that is, dispute between one or more employers and a group of employees. To the extent it applies, its operation has been fairly successful; but unfortunately only minor matters are referred for settlement and it does not appear that the Act has to any great extent served to prevent strikes and lockouts.

Germany.—Industrial Courts having jurisdiction in the manufacturing industries had been established in various localities in Germany since the first quarter of the 19th century. By a provision of the Industrial Code of 1869, local authorities were authorised to establish such courts provided employers and employees were equally represented thereon. In 1890, an imperial Act was passed establishing uniform regulations governing the form and procedure of

the local courts and extending their functions so as to provide for arbitration of collective disputes.

An Act passed in 1901 amended in some important respects the Act of 1890, especially with reference to the settlement of collective disputes, which, prior to that date, had not been arbitrated with any large measure of success. The Act of 1901 authorized the courts to act on their own initiative without waiting for either party to the dispute to make application for its services and provided that the arbitrators should be appointed by the parties concerned in the controversy. The appearance of the parties to the dispute was made compulsory and a penalty was provided for non-attendance. When both parties ask for arbitration, the Court then ceases to be a Board of Conciliation and becomes a Board of Arbitration. The acceptance of the decision is not compulsory except when both parties have previously agreed to abide by the award. The Act of 1901 further provided for the compulsory establishment of industrial courts in all cities having a population of over 20,000 and they may be formed elsewhere at the option of the state.

The whole system underwent a thorough change under the totalitarian dictatorship of the Nazi Party. Labour was assimilated into the party and the democratic rights and methods of settlement of disputes lost all their significance.

India.—The earliest law relating to the settlement of trade disputes was the Employers and Workmen (Disputes) Act of 1860. But it covered only certain categories of workers and aimed at speedy settlement of disputes concerning their wages. Another unsatisfactory feature of the law was the provision which declared a workman's breach of contract an offence. Though

it was not enforced, it continued to be on the statute book till 1932 when on the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Labour it was repealed. A Trade Disputes Act was passed in 1929. By an amendment in 1934, provision was made for the establishment of Courts of Enquiry and Boards of Conciliation to investigate or settle trade disputes. Strikes or lockouts in public utility services without 14 days' notice were declared an offence and general strikes were declared illegal. By an amendment in 1938, the Government were empowered to appoint conciliation officers; further, the scope of the Act was extended to cover certain other disputes and some other public utility services. The matter of suitable machinery for the settlement of industrial disputes was discussed several times in annual tripartite conferences. During the war time, Rule 81A of the Defence of India Rules introduced several compulsory features. With the cessation of hostilities, these rules ceased to operate. The whole matter was reviewed in the light of the experience of the compulsory provisions of the war period and the Government of India passed the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947.

Several State governments also passed similar laws. Being the most industrially advanced state, Bombay led the way by passing as early as 1934 the Trade Disputes Conciliation Act replaced by the more comprehensive Industrial Disputes Act in 1938. The latter Act introduced for the first time in India a comprehensive machinery for conciliation and arbitration. Soon after the war, the Bombay, C. P. and Bcrar and the U. P. Governments passed Industrial Relations Acts modelled more or less on the central legislation.

The Indian Industrial Disputes Act empowers the Central Government in the case

of Federal Railways, central undertakings, major ports, mines and oil fields and the State Governments in other cases to refer any matter appearing to be connected with or relevant to any existing or apprehended trade dispute to a Court of Inquiry for report or to a Board of Conciliation for promoting a settlement or to an Industrial Tribunal for adjudication. Reference of disputes to Boards, Courts, or Tribunals is at the discretion of the Government concerned but if both the parties either separately or jointly apply for such a reference, it is obligatory on the part of the Government to refer the dispute to a Board, Court or Tribunal as the case may be. In the case of public utility services, however, reference is obligatory in cases where notice is given and where the Government is satisfied that such notice is not frivolous or vexatious. With a view to expediting conciliation proceedings, it fixes a time limit (14 days and 2 months in the case of Conciliation Officers and Conciliation Boards respectively) for reporting their conclusions. The Act prohibits strikes and lockouts during the pendency of conciliation and adjudication proceedings. Settlements or awards of such proceedings can be declared binding on the parties.

The Act has given effect to the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Labour by requiring the appropriate Governments to see that an employer of an establishment employing 100 or more workers sets up a Works Committee consisting of an equal number of representatives of workers and employers. The duties of the Works Committees are to promote measures for securing and preserving amity and good relations between the employers and their employees and to that end, to comment upon matters of common interest or concern and to endeavour to compose any material differences of opinion in respect of such matters,

The Governments are empowered to appoint Conciliation officers for any specified area or industry charged with the duty of holding conciliation proceedings for the purpose of bringing about fair and amicable settlement of any industrial dispute. In case of failure of conciliation proceedings, the Government concerned may refer the case to a Board or Tribunal; if not, communicate the reasons for not doing so.

A Board of Conciliation is to consist of an independent chairman and two or four other members representing in equal numbers the parties to the dispute. The members are to be appointed on the recommendation of the parties they represent. The duties of the boards are similar to those of Conciliation Officers with this difference that where the proceedings end in failure the Boards, unlike the Officers are required to give in their reports their recommendations for the settlement of disputes.

Courts of enquiry are to consist of one or more independent persons with one of them (where there are more than one) acting as a chairman. The function of these Courts is, as the name itself suggests, to enquire into any matter connected with or relevant to an industrial dispute. The Court is required to report ordinarily within six months from the commencement of the enquiry.

The Industrial Tribunal may consist of one or more persons. Members of the tribunals must be persons of independent standing who are or have been judges of High Courts or District Judges. Persons who are qualified for appointment as judges of a High Court can also be appointed but their appointment is subject to the approval of the High Court. After the Tribunal has given its award, it becomes obligatory on the part of the Government to declare it binding on the parties by a written order. Where, how-

ever, the Government concerned are a party to the dispute and feel that it would be inexpedient on public grounds to give effect to the whole or any part of the award, such an award must be laid before the Legislative Assembly of the Government concerned and a resolution for its consideration be moved by the Government as soon as possible. The Legislative Assembly may by a resolution confirm, modify, or reject the award. The decision of the Legislative Assembly must be given effect to by the Government concerned.

Strikes or lockouts in the public utility services without notice are declared illegal. Also a strike or lockout is declared illegal if commenced or declared (1) during the pendency of conciliation proceedings before a board and seven days after the conclusion of such proceedings, (2) during the pendency of proceedings before a Tribunal and two months after the conclusion of such proceedings, (3) during any period in which a settlement or award is in operation in respect of any of the matters covered by the settlement or award. Chapter VI of the Act prescribes penalties for illegal strikes and lockouts, instigation of illegal strikes, breach of a settlement or award, disclosure of confidential information, etc.

There is a growing realisation that conciliation and arbitration methods would be of little avail without a basic field of understanding on the fundamentals, without an accepted code of conduct and rights and obligations. With a view to fostering this understanding on fundamentals, the Government of India have passed the Standing Orders Act of 1946. The Act extends to the whole of India and applies to all industrial establishments employing 100 or more persons. It authorises the Central Government in the case of central undertakings, ports mines and oil fields and Provincial

Governments in all other cases to extend the scope to or exempt any other class or classes of establishments from any or all of the provisions of the Act.

Under the Act, every employer is required to submit to the Certifying officer within six months of the application of the Act, five copies of draft standing orders which he proposes to adopt along with the prescribed particulars regarding the workmen employed and the name of the trade union to which they belong. The draft should conform to the model standing orders where these have been prescribed and should provide for certain matters laid down in the schedule, for example, classification of workmen; manner of intimating to workmen periods and hours of work, holidays, pay days and wage rates; shift working; conditions and procedure for leave; closing and reopening of the sections of the establishment; rights and liabilities of employers and workmen arising from stoppages; termination of employment; means of redress for workmen against unfair treatment or exactions etc.

The Certifying Officer certifies these orders after taking into consideration the objections of employers and employees. Persons aggrieved by the decision of the Certifying Officer can prepare an appeal to the Industrial Court or such appellate authority as may be set up for the purpose. For failure to submit draft standing orders or for the contravention thereof, an employer is punishable with fine.

The functions of the Certifying Officer are to be discharged by the Labour Commissioner where one exists or in his absence by an officer appointed by the appropriate Government. For Central undertakings, the Government of India have appointed the Chief Commissioner of Labour (Central) to exercise the functions of an appellate authority and the Regional Labour Commissioners of three

zones to perform the duties of Certifying Officers. Rules under the Act have been framed by most of the State Governments and Certifying Officers and appellate authorities have been appointed under the Act.

In India, there has thus developed a comprehensive machinery for conciliation and arbitration with ample scope for investigation and enquiry. It is not necessary to trace the development of trade unions in this connection but suffice it to say that there are a number of organised unions which are strong enough to carry on collective bargaining. India does not lag behind other countries in respect of the machinery for settlement of industrial disputes through peaceful means. With the recent setting up of a Labour Appellate Tribunal the coping stone on the labour judiciary has been placed.

Peace in industry is a prerequisite for peace in the community. But it is eluding our grasp. A two-fold approach is necessary. Prevention as well as settlement of disputes through peaceful means should be simultaneously sought. The preventive programme constitutes the material for another article. But we may here mention that in so far as the causes for industrial disputes are (1) economic (2) psychological and (3) political, the remedies too must be found in these spheres. This part of the article deals with three aspects of the machinery of settlement: (1) Voluntary approach through trade agreements, (2) diplomatic approach through mediators or conciliators and (3) Judicial approach through arbitrators, Courts or Tribunals. These three methods constitute different steps in the process of peaceful settlement of disputes. We have to travel a long way before we reach the stage of making labour settle all its disputes with employers through courts without resort to strikes. The history of experience with compulsory arbit-

ration in New Zealand and Australia, in Kansas and Colorado testifies to this statement. In these states, compulsion succeeded so long as the awards were favourable to labour and broke down when unfavourable. The State *vis-a-vis* the organised labour is in the same position as its earliest predecessor in ancient societies against groups with the right of private vengeance. In spite of its strength, it is too weak to compel labour to settle its disputes through judicial tribunals. Under present conditions, the functions of

the Labour Tribunals are to make them attractive, to persuade and convince the parties to the industrial dispute "to give hot blood time to cool, to prevent men (or groups of men) from redressing their own wrongs and to take into their own hands and regulate the methods of redress". Strike or lock-out being as disastrous as a civil war is dangerous, must be eschewed and for this, definiteness of labour jurisprudence and systematic labour judiciary commanding the allegiance of both the parties to the dispute are vitally necessary.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. N. HALDIPUR

In view of the changing economic and social conditions, the author points out, it has become difficult for many to make a proper choice of professions. Hence the need for educational and vocational guidance in our schools today. Discussing this problem, Mr. Haldipur gives a plan for organizing the Guidance Movement in India.

Mr. R. N. Haldipur has just returned from the U.S.A. after completing his advanced studies in Experimental Psychology in the Columbia University.

During the last twenty years, Indian educators have been devoting their thought to vocational education. Since the time Mahatma Gandhi announced his policy of constructive program and Swadeshi, an attempt has been made to reconstruct the educational system in the country, so that more emphasis could be placed on the manual, mechanical and practical aspects than on merely literary pursuits. It was really a move in the direction of democratisation of education to make it available to different levels of intelligence and skill, and also to integrate the different aspects of the personality of the student. Today the platforms and political programs are advocating vocational education. In many of the States serious thought is being given to Basic Education, whereby manual skill through handicraft would have a rightful place in the school curriculum. The need has been felt in view of the changing economy of the country. The growing industrialisation in the country with unavoidable mechanisation necessarily demands more workers trained to take their rightful place in the new world.

In this humdrum of activity, where we are devoting our energies to open more vocational and technical schools to train more people for trade and commerce, we are likely to overstep. All these years the occupational areas have been characterised by chance activity. One gets into a commercial school, because there is nothing else to do. A student takes up technical

courses because he fails in the academic work of the regular High School curriculum. One becomes a lawyer after his father and another becomes a doctor because his uncle wants him to be one. There are a few who still rely on phrenology and palmistry. In these unplanned and arbitrarily chosen careers, we have many who are dissatisfied with their jobs; many who are misfits and many others who go on hopping from one type of work to another. This has resulted in a wastage of human labour and productive activity in industry, dissatisfaction in professions and maladjustment in specific jobs.

Hence arises the problem. We need to fit a square peg in a square hole—to select and train proper persons to do proper work and proper pupils to learn proper things. This process of selection and guidance is called "Educational and Vocational Guidance" in educational institutions and "Employee Selection" at industrial level in many countries like the U. S. A. and England, where it has been used very profitably in both schools and industry.

The need for educational and vocational guidance.—There is a natural tendency amongst most of us to take that which is familiar for granted. Work and occupation has been one belonging to this category. Never do we pause to think that, since work occupies a major portion of one's time, it should be the active expression of the individual's whole personality. In view of this, a careful study of the individual and

his problems with regard to his vocational activity is necessary.

The modern industrial world with growing mechanisation and specialization, is pretty complicated for the parents to help or advise their children. Hence organised educational and vocational guidance is needed to provide the individual with experienced advice which will help him to decide on the course of action necessary for vocational adjustment.

It is also necessary to offset the unwise and false guidance of untrustworthy advertisements, selfish and ignorant suggestions and other prejudiced or unreliable sources.

Again from the community and national point of view, educational guidance insures greater profit to the individual from his period of training and more effective expenditure of the State and community funds for schools. Vocational adjustment for each individual not only means personal happiness but prevents great social and economic waste. Thus educational and vocational guidance is important from the point of view of the individual, the school and the society. Teachers, educationists, parents, leaders in the social, civic and industrial field, although interested in their specific problems, must assume some of the responsibility for educational and vocational guidance.

The principles of guidance.—The term vocational applies to all gainful occupations which add in one way or another to national wealth, in terms of commodities or productivity or services. Vocational guidance is not a single act—not a prescription to be given to a person who is groping in the dark for a job. It is the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress in it. Its ultimate goal is vocational adjustment of the individual in terms of the skill he has achieved, efficiency in the work, job satisfaction and social effectiveness. It is

primarily concerned with helping individuals to make decisions and choices in planning their future and building their careers in terms of their interest, aptitude, intelligence and personality factors.

Educational guidance is the conscious effort to assist in the intellectual and personal growth of an individual. Since the individual should grow according to his interests, aptitudes, and intelligence, educational guidance helps him in the choice of studies, choice of curricula and the choice of schools and colleges. Since preparation for an occupation involves these decisions, it becomes evident that vocational guidance cannot be separated from educational guidance.

The underlying principles which govern educational and vocational guidance activities are based upon the recognition of (i) individual differences, (ii) the complexity of modern occupational life, (iii) the right of the individual to make his own choice although subject to the necessity of considering the economic and social situation in which he finds himself and of realising that the adjustment of an individual and his occupation is an ever changing process. A human being is not an automaton; he differs from his fellow beings in both interests and potentialities. Vocational guidance implies a free but a deliberate choice, thus involving the democratic principles on which our whole constitution is based.

Dealing at length with these principles, it may be stated that the following points will have to be borne in mind in giving any kind of guidance:—

(i) No two individuals are identical in natural endowment or in environmental conditions. Every effort must be made to understand the individual's intelligence, special abilities, knowledge of work, physical fitness, educational achievements, experience,

temperament, character, interests and his social and economic situation. The individual differences call for individual attention. To provide equal opportunities for all, it becomes necessary to accord separate treatment to each. This does not mean that each individual is so different from every other, that there is only one good job for every person. Nor is the individual a fixed and rigid entity. He is capable of adapting himself within certain limits to a variety of situations. Instead, therefore, of there being just one perfect position for any individual, it would be truer to say that there are certain occupational areas within which an individual may fill any one of several positions satisfactorily.

(ii) The advancement of science and changing social and economic conditions make it increasingly difficult for an individual to be familiar with diverse occupations. It is, therefore, necessary to know the nature of the actual work to be done, its educational requirements, its demands on health, intelligence, special ability, temperament and character, the opportunity it offers for training and advancement, the remuneration, the working conditions and the importance of the occupation and the industry. Information on these points should be supplemented by a knowledge of educational institutions, the type of training they offer, costs, entrance requirements, qualifications necessary for success and the content of courses offered.

(iii) Educational and Vocational Guidance must take account of the developing personality of the individual, of his changing economic status and of the changes likely to occur in occupations. Since there is a necessity for making continuous adjustments, educational and vocational guidance must offer continuous service to the individual.

(iv) It also would involve an understanding of the local cultural habitat of the

people, the sociological and anthropological background which would throw light on the processes of choice and later adjustments.

Methods for Adoption.—It is very difficult and dangerous to prescribe a code or a rule-of-the-thumb method to streamline the activities to be undertaken to apply the above mentioned principles immediately on the Indian scene. The factors determining occupational choice in India are such that the hypothesis of the possibility of a choice is difficult to maintain. Lord Tennyson's deep sigh "lest one good custom should corrupt the world" has its bearing on the structural aspect of our society. The deep impressions of a hierarchial caste system on the one side and the new economic class system on the other have greatly stratified our society. Hence occupational choice has been not only a matter of the prospective worker but has been the concern of the kith and kin and the semi-organised set-up of our industrial and social life. The rural scene offers still more problems to be tackled. There we have to meet with the problem of illiteracy; secondary and collegiate education is still a dim, distant prospect and vocational guidance is nowhere on the horizon. Hence the approach to the problem both in urban as well as rural areas should be slow but multitudinal. Research in techniques and tools should go side by side. Investigation into the occupational opportunities should proceed along with the study of the tools of measurement of interest, aptitudes and intelligence. A lot of testing material will have to be devised and validated. Short-term pilot studies should be encouraged at various vantage points. Training of the personnel through courses opened in various Teacher's colleges should take its stride. Public interest should be fostered and their support enlisted by means

of propaganda and successful short-term studies.

All these colossal tasks should not however, prevent getting the guidance programme started. This can be done by commencing a three-month summer-camp training or in-service training, for one selected teacher from each school, where the very essential broad principles of psychology, economics and counselling can be given. We can thus have a team of what may be called career-masters or guidance teachers. These can carry on the work of giving a general educational and vocational guidance, based upon a study of the personal data of the individual pupils weighing their socio-economic status, family, father's occupation as against intelligence, aptitudes and interests as revealed by their achievements in class work and extra curricular life of the school. This is not an end but just a beginning of guidance movement in schools.

The institutions required for this purpose may be enumerated thus:

- (i) Teachers' Colleges, giving specialised training.
- (ii) Centres for a few select pilot studies where this trained personnel can be utilised.
- (iii) Various three-month summer-camp centres, giving training in a general type of guidance to teacher-representatives from different schools.
- (iv) A research centre where tests are being devised, occupational data gathered and occupational briefs giving information are prepared.
- (v) A committee of the local community interests like educators, industrialists and elders of the town, to popularise and foster interest in guidance movement.

- (vi) Agencies at different places for more specialized guidance services.

These programs will need the initiative of the educators, industrialists, teachers and parents so that a productive and an effective beginning is made. This will need a better parent-teacher relationship in each locality so that the parents can be persuaded to handle the question of vocational choice by cooperating with the pupil in the first place and with the teacher who knows the pupil's performance. This fact is to be borne in mind, especially in view of the fact that more freedom to the individual is likely to lead to a parent-teacher conflict. This would put the burden of proof not on Government or the elusive public but upon each individual teacher who has to play the role of both a teacher as well as a citizen.

Now let us pause and consider how the individual teacher should go about his special duties or tasks:—

(i) *Study of the individual.*—All available data bearing on the individual should be studied before an attempt is made to give counsel and advice. These can be obtained from (a) interviews with the pupil, (b) school records, (c) examinations, (d) interviews with other teachers, parents, friends and acquaintances of the pupil. All these depend upon various situations, each necessitating an inquiry.

An individual cumulative school record should register from year to year, all school experiences, viz., results of physical and mental aptitude tests, recreational and extra-curricular activities; hobbies and interests; and family situation and happenings. This is a very difficult task but its achievement largely depends upon the interest taken by the teacher. (e) Examinations and tests of various sorts furnish valuable data regarding the individual. For the moment, one can rely with caution on the examinations pre-

valent today. But a day will have to be augured when one can depend on more standardised tests administered scientifically with norms available for interpretation. This would require training of a personnel for both the administration and interpretation of tests. (f) Interviews held with parents, teachers and other related people depend for their importance on the material required for the purpose.

(ii) *Study of the occupation.*—(a) Studies should be made of separate occupations, jobs or industries in the local area and of trends in occupational distribution. These will have to be short term local studies as well as long term State-wide studies. In making these studies, information gained by visits to places of employment and by interviews with employers should be supplemented by the literature on the subject and by data secured from census reports, reports of employers' associations, labour organisations, professional organisations and Government departments. At present, occupational trends can be found by the individual school, sending a questionnaire to its alumni, regarding the various jobs (and their details) they have secured, a follow-up study in short, and by sending letters to local industries or employers, to inquire about openings to be found there.

(b) A library of occupational studies made by the school or other agencies both local and national in scope, should be maintained.

(c) A career-master should evaluate the work from time to time and should seek to inform the public regarding the same, in order to secure full co-operation in carrying on the work of the guidance movement.

(iii) *Counselling.*—(a) Group Guidance—Guidance can be carried on for group or for an individual. In the case of group-guidance, classes in vocational activities should be carried on. A study of occupations, helpful in meeting future vocational

problems, should be carried on by the student. This should also be made an occasion to show his relationship to other workers and to appreciate the contribution of all forms of labour to the welfare of society. This is particularly urgent in India, since the educated pupils drift along towards the white-collar jobs. These classes should also help in the choice of curricula and hence it is advisable to have them a year before the choice is made. Aids that may prove helpful are:—

(1) Visits to factories, business establishments, rural areas including fields. Talks by representatives of various trades and professions.

(2) Special lectures and conferences. These can be arranged by social and civic organisations.

(3) Pamphlets giving information about occupations and the educational preparation they require.

(4) An up-to-date collection of college catalogues.

(5) Motion pictures, libraries and field work.

Individual Guidance.—(1) This will be especially necessary in the case of pupils who need help to find out the vocation they are fit for. (2) The career masters should interview pupils at regular intervals but particularly at critical times, as one year before school or at exit time. (3) In the case of pupils who need other help like medical advice, financial relief, reference should be made to appropriate agencies and their cooperation should be sought. (4) Vocational choice should as far as possible be made after some try-out experience. Hasty choice is a waste, both of time and energy.

There are two other activities which the career master, with the help of the Principal of the school, can undertake:

(1) Employment certificate should be given not only with regard to formal requirements but should offer information, bearing on occupational problems, details of training, and future adjustments.

(2) *Placement or assistance in securing a position.*—This may mean advice about supplementary study or training, e. g., shorthand, typewriting etc., the technique of applying for a position, writing applications and method of facing interviews, etc. This should be done by taking into consideration not only the individual potentialities, interests, and skills but also the corresponding requirements of the occupations and the opportunities it offers.

In addition, a follow-up study of these pupils would help both evaluation of the guidance movement and also indicate lines of future guidance. Curricular changes and trade training courses can also be influenced by the experience and needs of former students.

All this looks like a nice blue-print. But the questions facing us are, "How can we make this practical? What about the finance and the personnel?". The only solution lies in the fact of a serious realisation on the part of the educators of the urgency and need of such guidance in a fast changing India, with programs of technical and industrial developments. If we have intention but not the will, there is little hope to go ahead. We can only make the best of what we have. A parallel can be pointed out in the introduction of physical training in every school, requiring the appointment of a Physical Training Instructor. Similarly, if we insist upon having a career-master in each school, more than half the battle is won. The question of finances can be solved by re-arranging curricula so that our heavily-burdened subject-curriculum can relieve one of its teachers for the purpose

of guidance and social education. Moreover, the vocational motive can be developed through many subjects taught in the schools. While it is essential that the cultural aspect should not be under-rated, the relative value of different subjects for different vocations can be made clear by discussion of such simple facts, such as, the importance of command of language for the engineer or the extent of the use of mathematics in such diverse fields as carpentry, medicine and economics. It is important that each subject teacher should present the vocational value and opportunities in that special field. This is more in line with a learning process, which directs the pupil's attention to real life situations. In addition, art or exploratory courses, especially in different vocations, part-time work and similar activities, would stimulate the vocational motive and these experiences would help in discovering interests and abilities. This would also motivate the student's mind towards being socially productive and a good citizen.

The counsellor and the school will have to study the broader aspects of the services they render. With this in view, the school will have to find out the number of drop-outs, the failures and other ill-adjusted pupils and investigate into the causes of their failure. Moreover, a study of the vocational needs of the community may help the problems of guidance and future placement. An inspection of the alluring short-cuts to fortune through short training courses and correspondence courses offered by vague advertisements is a necessary part of educational and vocational guidance.

Organisation and Administration for the Purposes of Guidance.—A few questions regarding organisation and administration are pertinent here. Because of the variation in local conditions, it is impossible to prescribe one exact form of organisation. In the case

of the school-systems of a large community, a Director of Guidance can co-operate and co-ordinate the services rendered by the individual career-masters in each school, while in rural areas, a director can be appointed for a region, covering a number of schools. This director should be a trained person who should give technical assistance and supervise the guidance programs of these different schools. He can also conduct research both in occupational trends and scientific ways of appraisal. In addition, he can help in placement work of individual schools by supplying them with necessary material from time to time and marshalling the cooperation of the various employment agencies. He has in short to work in close cooperation with those engaged in related activities and wherever possible with the teachers themselves, whose understanding and help are essential to the continuous guidance of young people and the guidance movement itself.

Of all the problems, the one that is most immediate and essential is that of creating public opinion, in favour of Guidance Movement. This can be facilitated by organising a Council of Educational and Vocational Guidance with representatives of educational institutions, of employment exchanges, of social organisations, especially interested in the problems of labour and State departments of labour. This Council can have sub-committees entrusted with the task of assisting in special branches of guidance activities. It may be mentioned here that the Rotary Club of Bombay has already undertaken one such activity, viz., the preparation of occupational pamphlets and the Y. M. C. A. has organised career-conferences for both school and college students.

The last word would be regarding the selection of teachers for counsellor's work. Since this field is of a specialized nature, arrangements for training should be made in Teachers Colleges till all the short-term trained career-masters become full-fledged vocational counsellors, after their one year's training. This special qualification can be made necessary, as we have more and more trained personnel available. But this should not deter the starting of Guidance Movement with the help of short-term-trained career-masters who can later on be trained for more specialised work. There are, however, a few personal qualities required of a counsellor. These are interest in people, an understanding of their problems, tact, patience, the spirit of service, together with a respect for accuracy, appreciation of scientific methods, a broad general education, including a knowledge of economics, psychology, history and sociology. The special courses in educational and vocational guidance should include supervised participation in such activities as counselling, occupational studies, vocational education, case-work, psychology-testing, field-work and practical experience in teaching. One need not try to pass the camel through the needle hole all at once. These courses and training can come slowly along with the progress made in research activities. We have to make a start somewhere and build up the structures slowly and patiently; then vocational guidance is bound to stay in secondary schools. It is neither an exaggeration nor a vain hope, if we say that vocational guidance is a stepping stone to a better society, where personal satisfaction and social productiveness can both be realised and the corner stones of democratic life firmly laid.

CHILDREN IN NEED—A RETROSPECT OF LAWS

D. V. KULKARNI

With the growing recognition of the importance of children to the nation, the Governments of the Union and States are revising their old Acts and making increasing provision for the welfare and protection of delinquent and destitute children. Reviewing these laws in this article, Mr. Kulkarni makes a comparative study of children's Acts in some of the progressive countries of the West.

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Someone has said that law is blind and as a rule law has given the same treatment to all in society. But law is only an instrument devised by man to give justice and justice must take into account the personality of any one who is to be covered by it. When this principle is established, the element of humanity and guardianship of the persons appearing before law comes in. Consequently, children in need who require help through the machinery of law should get differential treatment. As a matter of fact, the problem of according a differential treatment to child offenders and children who are "in need of care and protection"¹ has engaged the attention of social thinkers throughout history, both in the East and the West.

Measures in the Past.—If a detailed study is made of the ancient legal literature of India from this point of view, it is possible to gain a substantial support for the statement made above. In the *Artha-Sastra* of Kautilya as well as the *Smritis* of Manu, Apasthamba, Vishnu and other Codes of the Hindus, compiled from time to time, there are stray references which illustrate that people who were socially handicapped including children, women and old people, should be and were accorded differential treatment when they required the attention of the State.

Similarly, in the West, as far back as the tenth century, Athelstane enacted that

'men should slay none younger than 15 winters men' and provided that "if his kindred will not take him, nor be surety for him, then swear he as the Bishop will teach him, that he will shun of evil, and let him be in bondage for his price. And if after that he steals, let men slay or hang him, as they do to his elders." In the year Books of Edward I, it is recorded that burglary was spared to a boy of 12 years.

Disparity between measures and practices.—In common practice, however, this principle was not observed in England and as late as in 1840 a boy of 15 was sentenced to 14 years transportation for stealing 40 oranges and 50 eggs.²

In 1844 it is reported that there were 11,348 persons between the ages of 10 and 20—or one person in 304 of the total population of that age—in the prisons of England. In 1849 not less than 10,703 persons under 17 were sent to prisons for imprisonment or transportation.³

Even in the twentieth century, in spite of the enlightenment as far as the problems of children are concerned, there are certain States in India where the children are not accorded the differential treatment. Only last year, a young boy who was 11 years of age was sentenced to 46 years.⁴ Only very recently in one of the murder cases in the Uttar Pradesh, a young girl of 13 years, named Shanti Devi was sentenced to trans-

¹ (Please vide Section 61 of the (English) Children and Young Offenders Act, 1933).

² (Quoted in Report of Departmental Committee on the treatment of young offenders, 1927, page 7).

³ (Calendar Chester, Quarter Session, June 1846).

⁴ (Report of Departmental Committee on the treatment of young offenders, 1927).

⁵ (Report in the Bombay Chronicle dated 14-11-1949).

portation for life only, in view of her "younger age".^o

A New Era.—However, in spite of all this, a steady progress in the line of amelioration of the lot of children has been maintained.

The Indian Constitution, Article 39 (f) lays down, "The State shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment." Based on this Article, Dr. Panjabrao Deshmukh introduced a Bill formally "To provide for protection, for maintenance, for custody, for education and employment of children" on December 16, 1949. Though the Bill was considered ultra vires of the Constituent Assembly (Legislative) and also was educationally defective, there was unanimity on the objects of the Bill and it was generally approved that measures should be taken on a national level for the protection of childhood and youth in the country.

This particular problem was given special attention by the Education Ministers' Conference held in August 1949. This Conference consequently appointed a Committee of Experts which drafted the Model Children Act as suitable for the States in the Indian Union to base their Acts in respect of welfare of children "in need of care and protection."

In the Western countries, particularly in the United States, a new era began in the year 1909 when President Theodore Roosevelt called the first Whitehouse Conference on children. The discussions in this Conference mainly dealt with the care of children in institutions and in Foster Family Homes, which were just taking root at the time. One of the great principles which was enunciated at this Conference—and which still holds good—was contained in the oft quoted statement: "Home life is the highest and finest

product of civilisation. It is a great moulding force of mind and character. Children should not be deprived of it except for urgent and compelling reasons."

The second Conference (The Whitehouse Children Conferences are being held decennially now) was the Children's Bureau Conference on child welfare standards held in 1919 and was financed from Presidential funds by President Wilson.

The third Whitehouse Conference was held in 1930 at the call of President Hoover. It covered a wider range of subjects than the preceding Conferences and more than 30 Volumes depicting the deliberations were compiled and issued.

The 1940 Conference for children in a democracy, called by President F. D. Roosevelt, held its final sessions when war was just imminent during 1940. The conference was attended by some 150 representatives of various agencies working in the field of child welfare and the membership was about 700 including men with professional background, housing experts, representatives of Church groups, etc.

Over and above the Whitehouse Conferences on children, the American people are also active in other fields which are allied or which, in a way, form a part of the general field of child welfare. During the year 1946 the Attorney General of the U. S. A., Mr. Tom Clark, convened a National Conference on prevention and control of juvenile delinquency and this Conference considered in detail the various facets of juvenile delinquency.

This, no doubt, is a great advance on the thinking current in the last decade of the 19th century when the first Juvenile Court Law was passed in the U. S. A.

The Bombay Children Act.—The Government of Bombay have now recast the Bombay

^o (P. T. I. Report from Saharanpur dated April, 19, 1950 appearing in the Times of India of 30th April, 1950.

Children Act of 1924. A departmental committee to consider the existing measures under the Bombay Children Act, 1924, was appointed under Government Resolution, Home Department, No: 1922/4, dated the 3rd July, 1945. After thorough consideration of the report submitted by this departmental committee, the Bombay Children Act LXXI of 1948 was published having received the assent of the Governor-General, in the Bombay Govt. Gazette of Dec. 31, 1948.

This Act is an improvement on the 1924 Act, in that it has introduced new concepts of dealing with *child offenders as well as with destitutes, neglected, victimised and other types of children who require special help.*

Incidentally it will not be out of place here to enumerate a few important dates and background legislation on All-India level, which relate to the passage of the Bombay Children Act, 1924.

The Apprentices Act XLX of 1850 which is an All-India enactment having as its object the control of the "relations between employers and apprentices" empowers Magistrates to bind children, both boys and girls, between the ages of 10 and 18, as apprentices, if convicted of petty offences. This, perhaps, was the first attempt in India to deal with destitute and delinquent children.

Section 399 of the Criminal Procedure Code permitted the commitment of boys under 16 to a Reformatory, established by the local Government.

The Reformatory Schools Act VIII of 1897 is also an All-India measure which repealed an earlier Act of 1876. This Act deals with delinquent boys under 16 years of age in Bombay Province and under 15 years elsewhere. Under the Act, Reformatory Schools may be established and youthful offenders may, on the direction of the sentencing Courts, be ordered to be detained in Reformatory Schools from 2 to 7 years, instead of undergoing sentence of imprisonment.

The Bombay Children Act XIII of 1924, is a Government of Bombay enactment which after various amendments was thoroughly recast in 1948 as stated above.

Legislation in other States in India.—Prior to the passage of the Bombay Children Act, 1924, the Government of Madras enacted the Madras Children Act in 1920 and the Government of Bengal enacted the Bengal Children Act in 1922. The Government of Central Provinces enacted the C. P. Children Act in 1928. A comparative statement illustrating these as well as other Children Acts, which incidentally were more or less enactments drawn up on the lines of the Bombay Children Act, is given below. The statement also enumerates other social legislation in the field of correctional welfare enacted in the native states before their merger with the Indian Union:

The Government of Madras have recently drafted a Children's Bill to revise and remodel their Act of 1920. A First Grade Committee has been appointed to consider the draft and the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools of the State of Bombay has been taken as a member on that Committee.

The Bill seeks to emphasize the principle of guardianship and in deserving cases makes legal provision for training and education of needy children. It also visualizes the establishment of an After-Care organization with an objective to give help, protection and guidance to those children who stand in need of protection. The penal terminology has been restricted to the minimum and it is expected that the finalized form of the Bill will be a piece of social legislation with the least possible penal flavour. The age limit under the other existing Children Acts is proposed to be made wider to enable the State to care for a variety of persons. All these statutory features also stress the principles of treatment and rehabilitation rather than the retributive penal aspect.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN INDIAN STATES :

Name of the State.	Act in force.	Facilities available.	Government or non-Government.	Number of Organisations.
1 Bombay	1 Bombay Children Act. 2 Borstal Schools Act. 3 Bombay Probation of Offenders Act. 4 Bombay Beggars Act. 5 Habitual Offenders' restriction Act.	25 Certified Schools. 78 Fit Person Institutions. 25 Remand Homes. 10 After-Care Hostels. 1 Released Prisoners' Aid Society. 14 District Probation and After-Care Associations. 1 Bombay State Probation and After-Care Association. (Federal body). 42 Probation Officers of the Government cadre. 13 Directly recruited Probation Officers. 4 Chief Officers of District Probation and After-Care Associations. Follow-up :— (a) Certified School licensees. (b) Borstal School licensees. (c) Released prisoners. (i) Conditionally released prisoners. (ii) All released prisoners on expiry of sentence. Probation and After-Care work. Aid to Released prisoners. Foster Homes and fit person individual. 20 Juvenile Courts.	Government as well as non-Government.	7 Government Certified Schools. 18 Private Certified Schools. 1 Government Borstal School. 78 Private fit person institutions. 25 Remand Homes. 10 After-Care Hostels. 1 Released Prisoners' Aid Society. 1 Bombay State Probation and After-Care Association. 14 District Probation and After-Care Associations.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN INDIAN STATES :—(Continued.)

Name of the State.	Act in force.	Facilities available.	Government or non-Government.	Number of Organisations.
2 Baroda ...	(1) Children's Reformatory Act. (2) Children's Court Act.	Nil.	Government.	1 Released Prisoners' Aid Society.
3 Jaipur ...	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
4 Mysore ...	1 Mysore Children Act. 2 Mysore Borstal Schools Act. 3 Mysore Probation of Offenders Act.	After-Care work by Probation Officers appointed by District Magistrates.	Government.	Nil.
5 Kolhapur ...	1 Kolhapur Children Act. 2 Kolhapur Probation of Offenders Act. 3 Kolhapur Borstal Schools Act. (Acts are based on those in Bombay State).	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
6 Ajmer-Merwara ...	Extension of Bombay Children Act.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
7 Travancore ...	1 Travancore Children Act below the age of 14.	Supervision kept on the boys released from Certified Schools for 3 years.	Government.	1 Travancore Certified School at Trivandrum.
8 Cochin ...	1 Cochin Children Act.	Supervision of lads released from Borstal School and Certified School lads.	Government.	1 Senior Certified School, China-lept. (Madras). 2 Junior Certified School, Rani-pet (Madras). Both institutions belong to Madras.

A COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN INDIAN STATES :—(Continued.)

Name of the State.	Act in force.	Facilities available.	Government or non-Government.	Number of Organisations.
9 C.P. and Berar (i.e. Madhya Pradesh).	1 Reformatory Schools Act.	Nil.	Government.	1 Reformatory School, Jubbulpore. 2 Borstal Institution, Narsingpur.
10 Assam	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.	Nil.
11 U.P.	1 Probation of Offenders Act. 2 Borstal Schools Act.	Government Probation Officers appointed to carry out the After-Care work.	Semi-Government.	1 Borstal School.
12 East Punjab. Jullunder.	1 Punjab Children Act. 2 Probation of Offenders Act. 3 Reformatory Schools Act. 4 Punjab Borstal Act. 5 Good conduct prisoners Probational Release Act.	After-Care work by Government Probation Officers.	Government.	1 Reformatory School, Delhi. 2 Borstal Institution, Hissar.
13 Delhi	1 Delhi Children Act.	No After-Care work.	Government.	1 Children's Aid Society, Delhi. 2 Reformatory School, Delhi.
14 Bihar	Nil.	Nil.	Government.	1 Juvenile Jail and Reformatory School for young offenders.
15 Bengal... ..	1 Bengal Children Act.	Nil.	Government Bengal After-Care Society.	1 Society for the protection of children in India.

Name of the State.	Act in force.	Facilities available.	Government or non-Government.	Number of Organisations,
16 Orissa	<p>1 The Madras Children Act.</p> <p>2 The Madras Borstal Schools Act.</p> <p>3 Hajiaribagh Reformatory Code. These acts are in force in Karaput and Ganjam District.</p>	Parole for 2 years after the discharge from the Certified School or Borstal School.	Government.	<p>1 Juvenile Jail.</p> <p>2 Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society.</p>
17 Madras	1 Madras Children Act.	After-Care work by District Probation Officers.	Government.	<p>1 Children's Aid Society, Madras.</p> <p>2 Senior Certified School, Chingalpat</p> <p>3 Junior Certified School, Ranipet</p> <p>4 Junior Certified School, Bellari.</p>

A General Comparison.—Taking a bird's-eye-view of all the Children Acts, as they exist today, we may say in general that since the Bombay Children Act has been the most recent enactment, it is naturally more progressive as far as the philosophy behind the Children Acts is concerned. The preamble to the Bombay Children Act No. LXXI of 1948 reads:

"Whereas it is expedient to consolidate and amend the law for the custody, protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders and for the trial of youthful offenders in the Province of Bombay and for certain other purposes specified herein, etc."

The main principle of the Act is the rehabilitation of children in need of care and protection and all the procedures in the Act are supposed to work towards this ideal. Some of the improvements introduced in the Bombay Children Act, 1948, which stress the social principles and highlight the trends in the field of child welfare are enumerated below:—

"(1) All juvenile offenders must be tried in Juvenile Courts in that area and not in adult Courts, and there should be no joint trial of child and adult in areas where Juvenile Courts exist.

(2) Appearance of legal practitioners before Juvenile Courts except in cases where such appearance is necessary in public interests is restricted.

(3) Dealing with children suffering from leprosy or of unsound mind is provided for.

(4) Uncontrollable children may, in addition to Certified Schools, be committed to fit person institutions or to the care of a guardian or relative.

(5) Provision to prevent exploitation of children is made.

(6) Offences against Children are made cognizable.

(7) Bailing out of children to safe cases only is restricted.

(8) Passing of final orders committing dangerous children to jail is now in the hands of Government.

(9) Repatriation of children to their Provinces of origin is provided for.

(10) Probation Officers, etc., acting under the provisions of the Act are deemed as public servants and no suit, etc., shall be instituted against them for anything done by them in good faith."

The new Madras Bill, which is on the anvil, when it takes final shape will, it is hoped, go still further, as the penal principles which still exist in the Bombay Children Act will be reduced in the new Madras Children Act, as is evident from the present draft. The age group of children to be covered under the provisions of the Children Act of Madras will be upto 21, and the State will be responsible for the education and training of suitable children until they attain age of 21 years.

The Bengal and C. P. Children Acts do not favourably compare with the legislation of the States of Bombay and Madras. In the Central Provinces, the Act has been more or less defunct. Both in the C. P. and Bengal, the existing Reformatory Schools show that the philosophy of treatment of children in need of care and protection, has not developed as it should. Though specific mention has not been made regarding corporal punishment, it has been in vogue as was the case with the Bombay Children Act, 1924, in some of these old Acts.

The Model Children Act, framed by the Government of India Committee of Experts, has, however, taken the most salient features of the existing Children Acts in this country. The penal terminology has been avoided to give the benefit of the provisions of the Children Acts to as great a number as pos-

sible; the age limit is proposed to be raised from 18 to 21 and established educational principles are incorporated, after reducing the penal philosophy as much as possible.

Children Acts in the U. S. A.—As regards the legislation in foreign countries, it is needless to say, that the Western countries, especially the United States and England, have been leaders in this special field.

Since the time when the first Juvenile Act was passed in the State of Illinois in 1899, laws have been enacted in every State and territory of the United States. Each State has enacted a law and has established separate Juvenile Courts providing for specialised jurisdiction and procedure in the Juvenile Courts.

Some of these laws have received very little attention since their first passage in some of the States. On the other hand, some have been changing constantly towards better and more comprehensive forms. Some State laws contain criminal terminology even now, while others have taken a new shape with a pronounced social accent. As a result of all these tendencies, Juvenile Court legislation in the United States is still unstandardised, sometimes inconsistent and at times incomplete and defective. For want of space, it is not possible to present the comparison in its fullness. Suffice it to say, that the leaders in the field of juvenile delinquency have made repeated efforts to remove these inconsistencies by attempting a "Standard Juvenile Court Act."

The Standard Juvenile Court Act was framed to encourage the setting up of adequate Court machinery in handling cases of children requiring judicial action in accordance with the accepted principles of child welfare. The purpose and principle underlying are quite evident from the following quotation from the early edition of the Standard Juvenile Court Act: "The

purpose of this Act is to secure for each child under this jurisdiction such care, guidance and control, preferably in his own home, as will conduce the child's welfare and the best interest of the State and when such child is removed from his own family, to secure for him custody, care and discipline as near as possible equivalent to that which should have been given by his parents."

"The principle is hereby recognised that children under the jurisdiction of the Court are wards of the State, subject to the discipline and entitled to the protection of the State, which may intervene to safeguard them from neglect and injury and to enforce the legal obligations due to them and from them."

The English Children Act.—The English Children and Young Persons Act of 1933, as amended in 1938, is a revision of the Children Act of 1908, which was a measure with such widespread and beneficent influence as to earn for it the popular name of "Children's Charter". It is noteworthy that the Indian Children Acts, being based on their English prototype, have gone through more or less the same stages as the English Children Act.

As stated above, the first English Children Act which was passed in 1908, started a new era in England, as far as the treatment of needy children was concerned. The philosophy behind the Act, as against many of the United States Acts which stress the principle of guardianship, is essentially penal in nature. However, the English Act provides for Lady Magistrates and thus it has softened the penal aspect.

Anyone who is conversant with the machinery and the procedures of the Indian Juvenile Courts will have no difficulty in having some idea about the English Juvenile Courts, as, the Indian Children Acts are essentially based on the English Children Act.

Continental Legislation.—Taking a brief review of the Continental legislation concerning children, it is noticed that with the beginning of the twentieth century the principles of differential treatment of children have taken firmer roots.

France has the distinction of being the first country to give legal recognition to the specific needs of children. The Law of Children's protection in Belgium was passed on May 15, 1912. In Czechoslovakia, after 1918, the people of the Republic started to agitate for passing a new Act which would place the problem of the penal prosecution of the juvenile on a new basis.

The Professors of the Czechoslovak Universities who collaborated with this project took a leading part in the movement and the "Act on the administration of justice against Juveniles" was passed on March 15, 1931.

Though France was the first country apparently to give a legal status to the differential treatment of children, it was not until 1931 that we get the final shape of the legislation in respect of children. The provisions of the French Laws concerning children, especially dealing with the protection of juveniles in moral danger, were enacted on August 5, 1950. The various dates marking distinct advances in the history of the French Children Act are given below: 19th July 1898, 12th April 1906, 11th April 1918, 22nd July 1912, which constitutes the rights of child delinquents brought up before the Courts of Law and amended and modified by the law of 22nd February, 1921, 26th May 1927, 10th March 1928 and 24th March 1931. After the liberation of France in 1945, a new system of dealing with juvenile delinquency was introduced.

It is interesting to note that the gravity of the problems of young children both boys and girls during the period of war, also, underlies the exceptional rapidity with which

this reform was made. According to the new system, the penal sections have become the exception and the child is dealt with by appropriate measures of protection, assistance, supervision, education and reform. In future, no minor of 18 years will appear before any ordinary Judge and special Children's Judges are appointed.

Germany had its Children Act, called the Juvenile Court Act of 1923, but during the time when National Socialism held its sway, many of the salient principles underlying the Children Act were discarded and rough measures of discipline were introduced.

Juvenile Courts began to function in Greece in January, 1940. As regards the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, it is impossible to give a correct estimate of their methods. But it is reported there is no special legislation concerning juvenile delinquency. The Russians are reported to have applied an "extremely original" and "daring educational system" whereby the aim is to develop the adolescent's sense of duty and social responsibility, by allowing him to educate and organise himself with complete freedom amongst others in the same situation. The Bolshevo institution constitutes "a veritable republic of habitual delinquents". And, it is said to have achieved the most remarkable success.

The Scandinavian countries, especially Norway, have an original method of having "Child Welfare Councils" which are supposed to take care of the problem of needy children in a completely informal manner. This method also affords the necessary cooperation of the people and it is hoped an experiment on these lines in India will be worthwhile.

The Polish Juvenile Courts were set up in Poland in 1919. The organisation of the Polish Juvenile Courts is reported to be very

informal and just in keeping with the spirit behind the Children Act movement.

In some of the continental countries as well as Great Britain, as in the former Bombay Act, as distinction is made between young persons and children. The Bombay Children Act, as well as the draft Bill of the Madras Children Act, however, has abolished this distinction and thus taken a forward step.

Child Welfare Councils.—As a matter of fact an experiment on the lines of the celebrated Scandinavian Child Welfare Councils seems necessary in India. An analysis of the number of children appearing before the Juvenile Courts in the various States of India where legislation regarding children is enacted, will show that a preponderant percentage of them consists of children who are destitutes and neglected, who are found in moral danger, and who have improper guardians. Considering this aspect, questions arise whether it is necessary to put these children before a Juvenile Court, whether it is necessary to incur a heavy expenditure on the establishment of Juvenile Courts, and lastly whether some other procedure which will enable only a selected type of cases to be produced before the Juvenile Court, could be evolved.

Moreover, time and again, people in areas where the Children Act is applicable, have objected to send children before the Juvenile Court. In spite of the changing concepts of procedure for disposal of cases before the Juvenile Court, from the punitive to the social standpoint, appearance of children before Juvenile Courts has remained a stigmatising one, and if a larger number of children who require help and guidance is to be treated by law, some method which will constitute a non-stigmatising treatment is necessary.

Places where children are housed for observation, enquiry and social study are still called "Remand Homes" or "Detention Homes", having the same penal flavour as before. Our Certified Schools and Industrial Schools suggest the same idea of Jails and Prisons, and naturally even the enlightened public are not prepared to avail of the benefits of the scientific treatment which could be secured from the State.

Another point which calls for attention is the active participation of the community in meeting certain problems concerning the younger generation. Logically this is the primary duty of the State, Local Governments and also the members of any community. But there cannot be two opinions on the point that in such problems of social welfare, the initiative should come from the "grass roots" of society rather than from an abstract legal principle.

It follows, therefore, that there should be some organisation which will be complementary to the Juvenile Courts established under Law and that it must also be based on the active participation of the community served by the respective Juvenile Courts.

The Scandinavian countries have evolved this pattern. The Act of 1896 provides for establishment in each community of a specific institution—The Child Welfare Council. The Council consists of the District Judge, who is also a Lawyer and a State Official of high standing, a Clergyman and five men or women selected by the District Council. One of the latter must be a doctor who resides in the district. The Council is also at liberty to choose its own President.

This Council has wide powers like those of the Juvenile Court Magistrates as regards disposal of the cases of children.

It is suggested that even in our legislation concerning children some provision could be made by which cases which come before

the Juvenile Courts, due mainly to such causes as could be set right without reference to them, could be easily handled by such Councils of citizens, constituted on the Scandinavian pattern. Only such cases which involve legal and penal considerations may be left for the consideration of the Juvenile Court Magistrates.

If by an arrangement the Juvenile Court Magistrate, the Public Prosecutor and the probation staff are made available for contributing necessary help and guidance to such Councils, there will be no legal difficulty at all in selecting cases for reference to the Court and others to the Child Welfare Councils.

It is expected that such Councils will not have to face legal experts indulging in legal quibbles and intricacies. Already some of the modern Juvenile Court legislation in India have debarred appearance of legal practitioners except in a few cases with special sanction of the Court in writing. And in cases which deal with destitution, neglect, truancy, etc., there cannot be any legal controversy.

Such Councils, if they are approved by Law, will mean a great saving to the public exchequer. The leaders in the community will offer their voluntary services to the Council and the expenses of the Council alone may be met by the State.

In Scandinavian countries, people with sound scientific background and training in social work are gradually coming up on such Councils and there is every possibility that, if such an experiment is made in India, it will not be very difficult to have such people who will come forth to be on such Councils, which will help to solve local social problems in a much more informal manner.

Even now there are Voluntary Magistrates in the constitution of Juvenile Courts, according to the present laws of some of the Indian States and a further step in this direction as outlined above will not be very difficult.

If such Councils have some trained advisory staff for help, the disposal of case load will be quicker and also economical in comparison with the present method which necessitates longer remand period.

The above review of the various Children Acts, both in India and abroad, will no doubt show that every country in the world has to face the problem of children in need of care and protection. It also highlights the fact that the world has faith in humanity, and the vistas for the future development of this special type of work in respect of children are immense.

TREATMENT AND AFTER-CARE OF PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

HAROLD BALME

"The problem of the handicapped is not only a legacy of wars but is also one of the major problems of peace" says Dr. Harold Balme in this paper, discussing the various modern developments in the approach to and methods for the solution of this problem which is ever present in every country. In the course of his analysis, the writer emphasises the need for a trained social worker in tackling this question and points out that the public as well as the disabled should be educated on the wide range of occupations in which the crippled could be usefully employed.

Dr. Harold Balme, Consultant Adviser on Rehabilitation to W. H. O. and U. N. Department of Social Affairs, was a delegate to the International Conference of Experts on Physically Handicapped Children, held at Jamshedpur (19 to 21 December, 1950) and read the following paper.

The pathetic condition of the physically handicapped child, crippled as a result of congenital maldevelopment, serious disease or injury, has always aroused the sympathy of kindly disposed people in every land, but it is only within recent years that any attempt has been made to study the subject on scientific lines. The care and maintenance of the physically handicapped and disabled represent a problem which faces all countries in the civilized world, and is increasingly engaging the attention of government officials, leaders of the medical profession and social workers. This problem is not only a legacy of the devastating wars, which have caused such widespread suffering throughout the world, but is also one of the major problems of peace, for crippling disablement is never absent from us. Antenatal deficiencies of which we do not yet understand the cause; various forms of paralysis, occurring both before and after birth; infective diseases of heart and lung; tuberculosis and other diseases of spine and bones and joints; orthopaedic disabilities; and the results of serious accidents—these are only some of the many factors which add their yearly toll to the number of children who suffer from general physical handicaps, not to mention the many others who suffer from loss or serious defect of vision or hearing.

The effects of physical handicap.—The effect of so much disability amongst children

and adolescents is far more serious than is sometimes appreciated, for it actually represents a triple loss to the community. To the nation as a whole it means a loss of potential productivity and service; and in the case of countries which contribute towards the maintenance of the disabled it means, in addition, a heavy charge on the national or local resources. To the family and friends of the disabled child it means a burden of anxiety, and, often enough, an acute difficulty in providing the necessary support and attention. But more serious than either of these is the loss to the child itself, for not only is he or she deprived of the advantages which are open to the healthy, normal child, but the sense of deprivation and the hopelessness of outlook are only too apt to sow the seeds of serious psychological disorder and social maladjustment, which in turn add to the burdens which the child has to carry through life. In this respect the plight of the handicapped child, and the problem of treatment and after-care, are both in a way more delicate and more complex than in the case of the disabled adult. The grown man or woman who meets serious disablement, as the result of some crippling disease or injury, has at the outset a sense of shock and of devastating loss from which the handicapped child, crippled at birth or in infancy, is spared. But whereas in the former case, the adult has previously been in posses-

sion of all his faculties and has lived in a normal community, the reverse is the case with the child. With the disabled adult rehabilitation means an attempt to build on normal resources and recapture former capabilities; with the handicapped child it often means a slow laborious process of education, psychological adjustment and vocational guidance before the little patient is able to enter into the life of a normal community.

Reaction of Society to the Handicapped Child.—In every country, and among all classes of people, it is possible to trace at least three types of reaction towards the child who suffers from any gross form of physical handicap.

In the first place there are only too many people who regard such matters with complete indifference or even resentment, and adopt an attitude of neglect or actual cruelty towards the helpless little sufferer. This is not the place nor the occasion for a discussion of the warped mentality, the callousness or the deliberate inhumanity which governs such an attitude; but as we think of the burdens which the physically handicapped child has to bear, and the methods by which those burdens could be lightened, we must not shut our eyes to the fact that in some instances the first outstanding necessity is to secure legal powers to separate a cruelly used child from the family or community which causes it so much unnecessary suffering.

In the second place, there is a very common form of humanitarianism which seeks to surround the crippled child with kindness and protection, but which tends to perpetuate the child's sense of dependence rather than enable it to overcome its disability and live a completely independent life. Much of the splendid work which is carried out today by religious agencies and by various forms

of charitable organization fails in this respect. It is impossible to speak too highly of what these organizations have accomplished, and there are literally hundreds of thousands of children throughout the world who owe their health and happiness to the Homes which gave them shelter and the many friends who brought affection and sympathy into their lives.

But charitable assistance and welfare work can never be anything more than a second best, and it must never be forgotten that the greatest gift which we can ever bestow upon a physically handicapped child is the *ability to achieve independence in a normal community*.

This brings me to the third type of attitude towards the crippled child, often spoken of as the pragmatic approach to disability but which I prefer to think of as the higher humanitarianism—a form of approach in which every possible attempt is made to study the child as a whole, and to bring every force to bear upon the task of enabling it to escape from the environment of invalidism and disability in which it is too often surrounded, and to develop to the full its residual resources.

I think we may well describe this modern line of approach as constituting a new charter for the physically handicapped child—a charter based upon a clearer understanding of its fundamental rights, and of the duty of society to ameliorate its lot. With such an approach, it is no longer a question of merely finding a home for the child, with a little educational work thrown in. It is rather a question of finding out how much we can do by a combination of all our effective services—medical, educational and social—to give the child the best possible opportunity of overcoming its handicap, and preparing for a useful and contented place in the community.

We need to think of the handicapped child, not as an *object*, whether of pity or charity or anything of the kind; not as a *case*, to be studied from the point of view of its aetiology or pathology or psychology; not as a *claimant*, asking for financial support and board and shelter; but essentially as a little *person*, with all the individuality and personality, the longing and desires, the hopes and capabilities which you and I possess. But a person suffering from grievous privations, subject to serious inhibitions and frustrations, and needing all the sympathetic and wise handling which we can possibly offer.

The Development of Rehabilitation.—The last twenty or thirty years—and particularly this last decade have witnessed a striking advance in what is now generally spoken of as the science of rehabilitation, which means, in other words, the attempt to counteract the effect of disabling conditions by measures calculated to recover physical function to the highest possible degree, restore psychological equilibrium, and provide vocational guidance, training and employment for those who need to change their occupation because of their disability. It is an interesting fact that this important advance was not made, in the first instance, as a means of increasing the supply of manpower for war, as is commonly believed but was initiated by progressively minded insurance societies as a means of expediting recovery and reducing permanent disability in the case of insured workmen injured at their work. This fact is worth remembering, as it reminds us that the rehabilitation and efficient care of physically handicapped people has an economic as well as a humanitarian value.

This principle of rehabilitation was greatly extended during the recent war, both among the armed forces and also amongst civilian victims of air raids, and proved of immense

value, not only to the State but also to the patients themselves. With the cessation of the war the same principles are now being applied to all classes of the community, children as well as adults, and to all types of disabling condition. In each case the goal that is sought, as I have previously remarked, is the achievement of independence in a normal community.

Let us now consider what are the practical steps by which such a goal can be reached in the case of physically handicapped children, and what can be done by the various agencies represented at this conference in assisting co-operatively in this splendid task.

The Challenge to Medical and Social Workers.—When we think of any form of physical handicap, whatever its cause, we are at once confronted with a four-fold challenge, most simply expressed in the form of four questions.

Firstly, can anything be done to prevent it, so as to reduce the numbers of those who would otherwise suffer from such a disability in the future?

Secondly, if not entirely preventable, how can we limit its effects and diminish the degree of permanent disablement resulting from it?

Thirdly, how can we assist the handicapped child to adapt himself or herself to the disability, and develop all residual resources to the highest possible extent?

Fourthly, how can we educate public opinion to a right view of disability, and so find an acceptable place in the community and in employment for the child with a permanent physical handicap.

In other words, the problem of disability resolves itself into a problem of prevention, of limitation, of adaptation and of resettlement.

ment. We will take these four points in order and see what they each demand.

The Prevention of Disability.—In an interesting paper which came to my notice a few months ago, setting out the fundamental rights of blind people, I was struck by the fact that they started by saying that the first right of the blind was not to be blind at all! We can well transfer that apt remark to the case of physically handicapped children, for their first claim upon us all is to use every possible means of investigating the causes of disability, and instigating measures to remove all that are preventable. This means an extension of our maternal and child welfare services, for only too many forms of physical disability arise from injury or neglect at birth, or lack of skilled attention and treatment during infancy.

It means better and more scientific nutrition, for certain types of blindness and gross defects of vision, rickety limbs and many other forms of disability can be directly traced to failure to secure the minimum requirements of a balanced diet.

It means early recognition of potential disability, through better education, the establishment of infant welfare clinics and the wider use of health visitors.

It means more campaigns to stamp out infective diseases, and the use of more safety devices, in industry, on the streets and in the homes, to reduce the risk of serious accident.

Lastly it means a great extension of popular education in simple hygiene, and in the importance of securing medical advice, wherever possible, in all cases of abnormality in an infant.

Limiting the Effects of Disability.—When once a physical handicap has been recognised, it is obvious that the first necessity is to secure an accurate diagnosis and expert medical and surgical treatment of the under-

lying cause, and everything which can be done to increase and improve our clinics and hospital services will help towards the reduction of permanent disablement. But medical and surgical treatment which stops short at routine measures of nursing, appropriate drugs or surgical operation and after-care, and does not also include special measures to counteract the physical and psychological effect of the illness or injury, is not sufficient. Hence it is that modern hospitals are adding well-equipped and adequately staffed rehabilitation departments to their other units, whilst convalescent homes are more and more being transformed into active rehabilitation centres.

A modern rehabilitation department or centre is under the direction of a Rehabilitation Medical Officer—usually a specialist in Physical Medicine, or a member of the general medical staff specially interested in the subject—and under him there works a team composed of physiotherapists, remedial gymnasts, occupational therapists and social workers, whilst in children's hospitals there are also teachers specially trained to teach handicapped children. A psychiatrist should also be available, to help the cases who need expert assistance in overcoming the anxiety and frustration caused by the disability.

Physiotherapists in the United Kingdom are usually High School graduates who take a special three-year course at a School of Physiotherapy in massage, remedial exercises, electro-therapy, actino-therapy, and hydro-therapy. They are responsible for administering physical treatment, under the doctor's prescription, during the early, acute stages of the disease or injury, or giving individual exercise.

Remedial gymnasts are either graduates of Physical Training Colleges, or Ex-Service Physical Training Instructors specially trained in the application of physical exercises and

games to disabled conditions. They conduct group exercises in the gymnasium and various forms of indoor and outdoor games, and thus encourage patients to compete with one another, and to rely on their own activity, rather than depend on external help.

Occupational Therapists are also High School graduates, with a three-year course of training in a special school. Their work not only offers an interesting and healthy diversion for the patient, but is an excellent means of providing regular, gentle exercise, alternating with relaxation, for weak muscles and stiff joints.

The team is completed by the social worker, who is able to allay the child's anxieties and fears, interview the parents and explain what is being done, and thus secure everyone's co-operation in the attempt to reduce permanent disability and helplessness.

Let us take the case of a child with infantile paralysis, as an example. Such a child is usually admitted to a fever hospital during the infective stage of the disease, and to an orthopaedic hospital if it subsequently requires operation to transplant muscles or tendons or to fix frail joints. But if the degree of ultimate disability is to be reduced to a minimum the child needs much more than that. It needs continuous treatment and appropriate methods of physical rehabilitation from the very outset of the disease and throughout the whole stage of possible recovery muscle tone, including moist heat, electro-therapy (when required), prevention of contractures and deformity, and long courses of remedial exercise and re-education of temporarily paralysed muscles. The same is true of other disabling disorders, and wherever these facilities exist, the degree of permanent disablement is markedly reduced.

Even in the case of physical disabilities which have existed for many months or

years, appropriate courses of physical exercises and games, specially directed towards the strengthening of weak muscles and the mobilisation of stiff joints, will not only improve the child's general physique and sense of well-being, but will actually help to limit the extent of its physical disability.

The Adaptation of the Disabled Child to its Handicap.—But perhaps the greatest service which we can render to the physically handicapped child is by the adoption of measures calculated to assist him to adapt himself to his disability, not in a spirit of passive resignation but of determination to overcome his sense of handicap and fit himself for a useful and satisfying position in life. It is here that the services of trained educators, social workers and experts in vocational guidance and vocational training are absolutely essential. Before referring, however, to the specific contribution which each of these has to make, I would remind you again that in this process of adaptation, physical means of help must never be forgotten. In addition to regular exercises and appropriate games, mentioned above, a great deal can often be done to make the handicapped child more independent by the provision of mechanical supports (spinal jackets, calipers, orthopaedic boots, etc. etc.), crutches, properly fitted artificial limbs when needed, and some form of simple and inexpensive wheeled chair or other form of transport. In any programme for providing national services for physically handicapped children one of the first items on the list should be the setting up of good workshops for the manufacture and repair of prostheses and surgical appliances, and the opening of orthopaedic clinics at which such appliances can be properly fitted and applied by a trained surgeon.

The education of the physically handicapped child should commence as early

as possible, should be continuous, and should be undertaken by teachers who have had special training in the way to approach and handle a child who is probably backward and distrustful of its own abilities. This does not mean that the teacher has to take on the functions of a psychological social worker, but simply that she should be taught to understand something of the fears and inhibitions of the handicapped child, and how to meet them. The ideal method of providing educational facilities for physically handicapped children is to arrange for classes to be held regularly in all long-term hospitals, such as sanatoria for surgical tuberculosis or hospitals for paralytics; to open special day or residential schools in the larger cities, with some means of transport to fetch and return children unable to get there unaided; and to arrange for some form of home tuition for those very seriously disabled, if teachers are available in the neighbourhood.

Alongside this education it is of the greatest importance that the capabilities of the child for training and subsequent employment should be carefully tested and assessed by a vocational guidance expert. In this way a suitable course of vocational instruction, handicrafts, etc. can be included in the child's syllabus, and the way made easier for it to obtain suitable work when old enough, and thus secure some measure of independence. Training colleges for the more severely crippled, under skilled instructors, are also an essential part of the programme, and these should preferably be residential and limited to those who are too severely handicapped to be able to attend an ordinary training institution—such as the more serious forms of paralysis or a child who has lost one or both arms. But all young people capable of undertaking their vocational training alongside able bodied youths or young women should be encouraged to do so, as

this always increases their sense of independence and self-reliance.

Throughout this whole period of adaptation, the help of the social worker is invaluable and indispensable. It is she who visits the homes and persuades the parents—often with great difficulty, and only as a result of immense patience and tact—to allow the child to enter hospital or a special school, or be fitted with an artificial limb or surgical appliance. It is she who gradually wins the child's confidence and affection, and helps to dispel its fears and anxieties. It is she who helps to change the child's despair into an attitude of hopefulness and expectation. And it is she who helps to keep the wheels oiled when difficulties arise and there is risk of the whole process of education and training breaking down.

Educating the public.—There is no greater tragedy which can happen to a physically handicapped child than to complete a good course of education and be trained for useful employment, only to find every opening barred by prejudice or ignorance on the part of employers, fellow workmen or public opinion in general. This is why so much attention needs to be given to wise methods of publicity, demonstrating the wide range of occupations in which disabled people have proved themselves perfectly capable of holding their own with those who are able bodied. A great mass of statistics, carefully collected in the United States, is now available in proof of this claim; but these facts need to be repeated again and again before they will become generally accepted.

A personal approach to a sympathetic employer, and an appeal to him or her to give the handicapped child a chance to make good, is often the most promising way of making a start, and every case of successful placing should be written up in the local press and given wide publicity.

I must apologise for the length of this paper, but I have endeavoured to give some indication of modern lines of development in the attempt to meet the special needs of the physically handicapped child, and of the encouraging results which can be expected from the combined efforts of the various agencies represented at this conference. Such efforts, whether controlled by Government Departments or by voluntary agencies, need to be combined and closely co-ordinated. Otherwise serious and harmful gaps appear in what should be a continuous process of medical care, physical rehabilitation, education and vocational guidance, social welfare, vocational training and settlement in suitable employment.

It will, of course, be obvious to all present that what I have attempted to lay before you is an ideal picture of a comprehensive service for the physically handicapped child

which no country has yet succeeded in establishing on anything approaching a nation-wide basis. But there is no occasion for discouragement on that account. This is the kind of service which we should all like to see our crippled children enjoy, and if it is only possible to commence building it up in very modest fashion at first—perhaps by improving our child welfare clinics, providing better nutrition, opening more hospitals for crippling diseases or accidents, establishing some limb-fitting and surgical appliance workshops, starting a few special schools and a training college or two, and encouraging the recruitment of physiotherapists, occupational therapists, vocational guidance experts and social workers—we shall at least have the satisfaction of knowing that we are in the line of the most modern approach to this important subject, and are bringing new hope and cheer to hundreds of suffering children.

SOCIAL CASE WORKER AND PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

MISS GAURI R. BANERJEE

"The crippled child is not just a diseased limb but a *Person* with capacities and aspirations, anxieties and fears," says, Dr. Banerjee and maintains that medical men generally treat them for their particular handicaps to the neglect of the person as a whole. In this article, she draws attention to this aspect of the problem and suggests as solution the appointment of Social Case Workers in institutions intended for aiding handicapped children.

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Physically handicapped children have been found in all times and climes. The number of disabled and crippled children in our country to-day appears to be greater than ever before. This increase in number may be due to the general rise in our population. Or it may be that due to the advancement of the science of medicine and surgery many more people who in earlier generations would have succumbed to accidents or diseases are now able to survive in spite of their crippling conditions than was possible about a century ago. Besides, in modern days due to transportation facilities, people move freely and easily from place to place. It may therefore be more difficult now to keep crippling diseases like poliomyelitis under control. Further, the machine civilisation has been partly responsible for various automobile accidents, train collisions, aeroplane disasters and industrial hazards which have enhanced the number of the crippled to some extent. Lastly, riots and wars with their accompanying evil of indiscriminate destruction have also contributed towards the increase in the number of the physically handicapped.

Crippled boys and girls have received varying degrees of treatment at the hands of society at different periods of time. Amongst primitive people the chief concern of the community was the self-preservation of the group. Each individual was supposed to contribute towards the safety and security

of his clan. The rights, needs and desires of the individual were to a great extent governed by the interest of the group. The individual who served the society was honoured. The individual who did not injure the society was respected. The individual who threatened the society was punished and the individual who could not contribute towards the welfare of the group had no right to exist. Society bore no responsibility for the acts of individuals. Such social behaviour as inability to contribute towards the well-being of the group was considered either inherent in the individual or the result of the activities of the devil who could enter the body of a man and lead him to social misbehaviour.

In very early times, human society was in general surrounded by elemental forces that threatened life, like beasts and natural forces, such as, disease, flood and famine. In such circumstances, crippled child could not make the requisite contribution to the welfare of the group. Or in other words, the group could see that he was not going to be useful when he became an adult. Moreover, during war or famine when the tribes had to move from one place to another it was a difficult task to carry an invalid along with them. Thus a crippled child in the primitive society came to be regarded a useless burden. Also it was believed by some people that deformity of any kind was a sign of the possession by

an evil spirit. As a result, the members of the family or the group felt that some calamity might befall them due to their association with the crippled. So sometimes they did not hesitate to kill the physically handicapped or to leave him to his fate even though in certain cases influences of parental love or individual traits of kindness or a sense of group responsibility modified to some extent the practice of extermination or neglect of the disabled. It is probably these feelings that were ultimately responsible to a great extent for the building of hospitals in ancient times for the care of the sick and the disabled. Though it is not known for certain to what extent such hospitals might have aided a child with congenital or acquired deformity there is no doubt about the fact that some of them did render medical aid for disabilities caused by disease or accident. Besides, we find that various kings built charitable institutions for the care of the helpless and the destitute and many crippled adults and children took shelter in them. In course of time, some orphanages and charity homes were built exclusively for children who were the victims of destitution or desertion by their parents. In such institutions, some physically handicapped children, too, got admission.

Along with provision of care and shelter to the physically handicapped, there has continued in our country an attitude of neglect and exploitation too. While a few physically handicapped children, especially the deaf, the dumb and the blind, attend educational institutions, some of their fellow brothers and sisters are sent out for begging by their parents or exploiters. As these children can attract public sympathy, they are able to earn by begging more than their parents or other able bodied children of their own age. Consequently, some traffickers deform entirely normal children by

artificial methods and use them for the purpose of earning money.

In recent years, with the development of orthopaedic surgery, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and advancement in medicine, some attention is paid to minimising the handicap and to bring about the best physical adjustment of the child. In big general hospitals, we find orthopaedic wards slowly developing. Physiotherapists and occupational therapists are gradually appearing on the hospital scene. But physical restoration is only one part of the rehabilitation or habilitation process. Inseparably with it must go social and psychological adjustment. With the attempt to correct the physical defect, there is need for understanding the sick child as a *Person*.

Pasteur directed physician's attention to disease *per se*. The germ theory has led us to consider disease or physical deformity as a disembodied entity. It is, however, not the unhealthy throat or the leg that succumbs to the forces of pathology. It is always the *Personality* that acts as a whole, i.e., in its social, emotional and somatic aspects. Traditional medical information deals only with the cases of diseases and is not specially interested in persons. A patient is a deformed leg or a damaged heart; he himself, i.e., the patient as a *Person*, is overlooked. But the life experience of everyone of us bears testimony to the fact that the human being is more than just a complexity of chemical processes or a conglomeration of cells. We are all thinking, feeling, and willing human beings. So a patient cannot be divided into physical and mental components and be treated for the one, while effectively ignoring the other. Physical deformities affect the feelings and behaviour of the individual and, consequently, his relationship with other people. Besides no child can survive in either a physical or

social vacuum and it will be unrealistic to attempt to consider him at any stage of his development apart from his environment. In the etiology of his illness and in the development of his personality, biological, emotional and social factors become inextricably interwoven.

In order to understand the social and emotional problems of the crippled child, it may be worthwhile to observe some of the common reactions of people towards the physically handicapped, the relationship between the crippled child and his parents, and the effects of physical disability on the development of personality. It has been noticed that non-handicapped people try to avoid physically disabled persons as they seem very different from them and also because there is a lurking fear that by associating with the crippled they may acquire the deformity. Physical handicap is very often identified with the disease which may have led to the crippling condition, and people are panicky about catching the infection. The more severe and visible the deformity is, the greater is the fear of contagion; hence the attitude of aversion and segregation towards the crippled.

There is also a general belief that a person's physical disability is a punishment for the sin he has committed; therefore, he should be regarded as dangerous and sinful. Some feel that a physically disabled child has been unjustly punished and, therefore, is under pressure to do an evil act in order to compensate for the injustice. There are others who regard a crippled child as helpless and useless and, therefore, an object of excessive pity and also a source of acquiring religious merits. In India, it is still a common practice to give alms to the crippled. It is given more than the idea of reserving a seat in heaven than with that of ameliorating the condition of the disabled.

It is taken for granted that the crippling condition of a person is the result of his own '*Karma*', i.e., actions either in the present or past births, that nothing further can be done to alter his condition and that the handicapped person must needs suffer so that in the next birth he can be free from the deformity. By giving alms, some religious people believe that they are enabling the crippled individual to have a sufficiently long span of life of misery to absolve himself of all his sins. They hold that, if no alms are given, he may die of starvation and be born again in the same condition. He may not have the opportunity of expiating his sins. By providing an opportunity to a crippled man to free himself of all sins and also thereby doing some good to a fellow being, the giver of the alms is supposed to be acquiring religious merits. Very few, however, are the people who take a scientific view of physically deformed persons. A crippled child needs medical treatment to minimise the effects on him of his physical handicap. He needs to be helped to make better personal, social and vocational adjustments.

So far as the parent-child relationship goes, varied reactions are noticeable. Some parents over-protect the crippled child while some others outright reject him. The parents who had some disease, had attempted abortion or had performed deeds which they regarded in their heart of hearts as sin, try to over-indulge the crippled child, spoil him, make him eternally dependent and a 'useless bundle of flesh and bones'; all this because of the secret feeling that they have been the cause of his physical handicap. Sometimes it happens that the parents of the crippled child are terribly shocked to see his deformity. They notice the difference between their deformed child and another normal child, feel humiliated and start rejecting the former. Some parents at first

provide the necessary physical care for the child but they get annoyed with him when the cost of care turns out to be high. A few parents over-protect the crippled child and when he becomes spoilt they take recourse to severity which causes remorse. Some rich parents consider it simply unnecessary and troublesome for their crippled child to receive education. For, as he has not to earn a living for himself, why should he be burdened with work when he is already stricken by the hand of Providence?

Certain crippling conditions are not noticeable easily and, therefore, not understood by parents and people in general. A child with cardiac disorder is very often regarded by people as a malingerer. As his disability is not visible, parents make demands which is hard for him with that physical disorder to meet. He is often punished for his inability to perform certain tasks allotted to him. It also happens that parents sometimes try to compensate for the physical disability of their ward by forcing him to acquire intellectual attainments. He is thus almost inevitably placed under great pressure and reacts to it with emotional tension and anxiety.

On the other hand, certain handicaps like epilepsy bring about a different kind of reaction in the children. As epileptic children do not have an obvious handicap like a deformed leg or a missing arm which prevents doing as they would wish, it is hard for them to accept protection and the limitations imposed. Frequently they become irritable or self-indulgent and make demands impulsively. It often happens that out of concern about temper outbursts and an implied threat of a spell, parents become over-indulgent. The all pervading worry of parents is seen also in their belief that their children will deteriorate mentally and will not be able to take up the responsibilities of

an adult in their later lives. Children are likely to respond to such an anxiety-ridden home atmosphere by developing preoccupation with self or severe hostility towards parents who build a wall of protection around them.

Another factor that interferes with smooth relationship between the crippled child and his parents is that to a youngster his parents seem to be manifested with supreme powers. Consequently, he holds them responsible for his handicap. Perhaps he thinks that they could have avoided the calamity that has befallen him. It is possible that he may express his hostility towards them to some extent by socially disapproved actions. This in turn may again bring about guilt, anxiety and self-blame leading to an unhappy parent-child relationship.

So far as the bearing of physical disability on personality goes, it may be mentioned that there is a general belief that a crippled body has a crippled mind. It is true that the physical handicap makes life hard but the crippling condition alone cannot account for the crippled mind. The bitter attitudes towards the world at large found amongst the physically handicapped seems to have much to do with the society he lives in and its reactions towards him. If his environment is harsh, there is every likelihood of the crippled child developing a similar attitude towards the people around him who, in turn, may attribute crookedness of mind to his crooked body.

Certain physically handicapped children, due to their crippling conditions and due to the indifferent attitude of others regard themselves as different from others and a burden to their families. They develop a sense of inadequacy. As a result, they gradually withdraw into themselves and become introverted personalities. However, there are other crippled children who, due

to the overprotection of their parents, enjoy their disabilities that make them the centre of attraction and sympathy. Such children may reject all help given towards minimising their handicap and remain babies of their parents to all purposes. As stated before, some parents would rather keep their handicapped children at home in a state of idleness and ignorance than send them to some institution to learn some art or trade; and this is regarded as nothing but a natural exhibition of the overwhelming parental affection for their helpless sons and daughters. In course of time, these children begin to feel that they have nothing particular to learn and the world owes them a decent living throughout their life. Thus over-indulgence and rejection on the part of adults invariably lead to the prolongation or shortening of the period of dependence, both of which are detrimental to the healthy social development of children.

A crippled child is deprived more frequently than a normal child of play opportunities that are very important for his psychosocial development. Play is the child's most natural medium of expression. Through play he explores the real world, his own ideas and emotions. He comes to know for instance, how far he can go in his aggressive play. He realises the attitude of others and develops the ability to get along with them. He works out his own feelings through play. It is unfortunately true that a crippled child is more restricted in his normal play behaviour than a non-handicapped child. As a result the normal development of the personality of the former is hampered to a great extent. He very often skips his childhood and becomes a repressed young adult.

Also the physically handicapped person easily becomes hypochondriacal. It is evident that a healthy person indulges in various activities and, therefore, may not have a need to concentrate on his body all the time. A

crippled child, however, has a particular organic defect. Besides, he is not occupied with various activities with which a non-handicapped person is. As a result, he focusses his attention on his deformity. It is also true that the handicapped child, who has other anxieties due to personal and environmental factors, may transfer them to his organic defect and become too conscious about it.

All these tend to show that a crippled child is not just a diseased limb but a *Person* suffering from some deformity—a person who comes from a particular home background, bears a certain parent-child relationship and has some definite attitudes towards his handicap. These factors together with his capacities and aspirations, anxieties and fears, etc., need to be taken into consideration before a sound plan for his rehabilitation can be worked out.

In order to understand the physically handicapped child as a *Person*, we need case work approach. The dissemination of knowledge and provision for the rehabilitation of crippled children need to be carried out on a mass scale. Yet it is a fact that those who need aid for rehabilitation may have fears of a psychological origin and resist it to a varying degree. Understanding psychological fears and resistance, helping the client to deal with them and make the best use of instructions regarding his rehabilitation, are the particular fields of case worker's work. We need not get into the technicalities of case work here. The simple definition of case work is that it is a particular way of assisting people individual by individual when they are "experiencing some breakdown in their capacity to cope unaided with their own affairs." This approach is derived from professional training and specialised experience. This implies an understanding of the individual as a whole, i.e., not only

a *Person* suffering from the crippling condition but a *Person* influenced by certain social and emotional factors as well.

Case work service is needed for the crippled child at various stages. When he has to be hospitalised for the treatment of his deformity, his social and emotional problems have to be dealt with. Some parents resist the hospitalisation of their ward even when repeatedly told by doctors that it is very essential. They often have an intense fear of the possibility of additional infection from other patients. Or they regard the crippled condition of their child as a punishment for their past sins. If they had rejected the child even before he was born, they feel guilty when the child develops obvious physical handicap and they break away from the treatment if it is painful to him for the time being. These factors may seem ridiculous to us, but to the patient and his parents who are facing them, they are real. They are not aware of the factors that create these fears in them. Unless these fears and conflicts are handled scientifically by trained case workers in the hospital, the patient and his family might remain emotionally upset and not accept treatment.

A case worker's (a hospital social worker or a case worker of Family Welfare Agency) aid is very often needed to plan out the care of a crippled child by dealing with the emotions of his parents. According to Georgia Ball, "The mother who is not well, who has many children and more worries, may find that a badly disabled child is such a drain upon her that she begins to wonder if it would not have been better had the child died. After countless nights of sleeplessness, days that drag by with special trays to be carried upstairs and bed pans down, the other children neglected, meals late and the husband ill humoured or staying away

from home, the doctor and the nurse and the social worker suggesting that she do a little more—bring the child to the clinic, read to him in the afternoons—may we expect to find some resentment on the part of the mother? Is it unnatural after years have gone by in which everything has been centered on the child and she and the other children have been neglected that we find this mother rejecting the disabled child. When we seek to overcome resistance to further treatment we sometimes find that an opportunity for a mother of this kind to unburden her resentment to find that someone at least sees her side of the picture and sympathises with her may cause the resentment to vanish".¹

Parents who over-protect their crippled child due to their guilt sense need the emotional support of the social case worker, to get an insight into the workings of their mind. After overcoming the conflict, they may be in a position to help the child gradually to live within the limitations of his illness as normal a life as is possible.

Again, a crippled child often feels inferior to others. It is true that some children may possess superior personalities and they may not have this emotional reaction. Or if they have it, they may be able to overcome it soon. A few children are so gifted but many may have the potentialities which, if trained, could avert the calamity of developing neurotic personalities with self-pitying and attention-seeking mechanisms. One of the functions of a case worker in Hospital Social Service Department, Family Welfare Agency and children's institutions is to be aware of the emotional responses to physical handicaps and to attempt to prevent some of the unnecessary frustrations of personalities by discovering the individual potentialities and ways for developing them.

¹ Georgia Ball "Case Work with Crippled Children" *The Family* (April 1939).

As previously stated, many crippled children have feelings of hostility and guilt towards their parents and, as many of them are unable to solve their difficulties unaided, case work service may well be utilised for diminishing the resultant anxiety. Through direct interviews, a child can be helped to give vent to his repressed feelings. When he is able to tell his story in his own way, he lays out on the table as it were his difficulties and sees them himself. It is an educative process. He gradually gains insight into his problems and tries to handle them. It allays his anxiety when he finds that there is a person (case worker) who does not punish him for his bad deeds or thoughts but accepts him as he is. The child gradually gains confidence in himself and feels more secure. As a result, he does not have the need to resort to neurotic behaviour. The case worker may also approach the parents and help them to see that, if young children are encouraged to express their guilt and hostility and assured constantly about parental love, they may feel secure. She can also encourage parents to provide the crippled child with opportunities for play and not make a premature adult of him.

Amongst the physically handicapped, there are some whose essential need can only be met by psychotherapy, probably only by psychoanalysis. A trained case worker (at Hospital Social Service Department, Family Welfare Agency, Child Guidance Clinic) keeps in touch with various community resources and pools them together for the benefit of the client. She takes the help of psychiatrists and psychoanalysts when the problem requires their consultation. Her task, however, is not over just by referring the case to a psychiatrist or a psychoanalyst. Even if there is a fairly complete analysis, implying insight gained by the client and deep changes in the emotional life, there is eminent necessity in many cases for a re-

constructive period. Insight and emotional change alone cannot bring about the total success in the case of an individual who is definitely handicapped in the preparation for life. Apart from giving direct financial assistance to a handicapped person in becoming self-supporting and obtaining minimum standards of life, there is constant need for giving understanding guidance and encouragement to keep him steady towards the new goal. It takes some time for assimilating or incorporating into his behaviour trends the insight which he has gained. The social case worker has to find out new opportunities for such a person and jointly plan with him and his family to get him adjusted to the new situation. If there is environmental pressure she has to work towards its modification so that the person is not overwhelmed by it at that stage and does not slide back into the old pattern. In many cases, the only constructive treatment possible is through the environment. Suppose a child does not have a loving parental figure upon whom he can depend and therefore feels insecure. Insight therapy might reveal to him that he feels insecure because he is unloved and therefore lost in a hostile world. He is unloved and therefore lost in a hostile world; so what does he gain from this insight? He himself cannot change his world. The case worker in such cases becomes a substitute parent and gives what the child has missed from his parents. She may also find out a suitable mother or father-figure for him in the community, who can give him warmth of feelings. This environment treatment can fill the gaps that previous life experiences have left for him.

A case worker (specially school social worker) plays an important part in bringing about a good school adjustment on the part of a crippled child. A physically handicapped child as far as possible should be brought up with normal children (unless his

deformity is very severe and needs special type of institutional treatment). Teachers are sometimes extremely fearful of the crippled and refuse to admit physically handicapped children in their schools. These institutions can contribute markedly to the emotional growth of children handicapped by physical deformities, whose personalities have become warped by parental mishandling at home. By treating the children as normal individuals, teachers actually perform a therapeutic function. School social workers have to bring about a proper understanding of the crippled child in the teachers and the parents.

The case worker's most important task lies in helping a cripple to accept his handicap without being jealous of others and without making extravagant demands upon them. Since all the people in the community cannot be expected to adopt an understanding attitude towards the physically handicapped, it is essential that a crippled child be helped emotionally to deal with such conditions. He should not feel frustrated if some of his neighbours avoid him or if he himself is not on par with non-handicapped people. A deformed child needs to acquire not a defence against, but an acceptance of these situations. Besides, a crippled child as well as the society must develop a new outlook about physical handicaps. So far as the crippled child is concerned, in our country his disabilities have been viewed and emphasised always, rarely his abilities. It remains for the case worker to make the child and the public aware of his (child's) potentialities and help him to adjust to the world despite his handicap. However, the plan for the adjustment or rehabilitation should not be imposed upon him by the case worker. It should be worked out in cooperation with him and his family, so that they can participate in the carrying out of the programme. Even if the child is handicapped,

he should be helped to decide his own fate. In other words, he should be helped to help himself and feel that he is the master of his destiny.

In this connection it may be mentioned that the interdependence of case work service and community resources is such that unless all are of high quality the service will itself be handicapped. If a particular community lacks in facilities for various kinds of services to the crippled and their families, the case worker in a Family Welfare Agency or in a Hospital Social Service Department is prevented from helping the client adequately. In a particular region, there may not be any educational or recreational programme for handicapped children. The worker may recognise these needs of children but will not be able to help a child in the real sense of the word unless there are facilities for school teaching, vocational guidance, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, etc. Communities vary in the completeness of their social and health services and these do affect the adequacy of the service rendered by the case worker. Therefore, a case worker in any setting, e.g., Hospital, Family Welfare Agency, Child Guidance Clinic, Juvenile Court and School, has to become indirectly a community builder. She cannot keep her work strictly confined to any setting. She has to interpret the needs of the client to the community and make efforts to arouse public interest in bringing about certain improvements. The case worker for children has to bring home to the public through the press, lectures or by contact with the members of various groups that, along with the development of more and more children's hospitals, there is also the need for developing schools for crippled children and improving the conditions of existing institutions so that the handicapped children can be imparted education and vocational training and be

provided facilities for recreation. At the same time the State Department of Education should be moved also to offer special facilities for students with minor handicaps in schools for normal children. As physical adjustment has a tremendous effect on psychosocial adjustment, attempts should be made to minimise a physical handicap as far as possible by means of physiotherapy, occupational therapy and the use of prosthetic appliances.

In our country there is a dearth of firms that manufacture these appliances. Moreover, people, also feel that an artificial limb given to a child is an unnecessary expenditure as he outgrows the size of the appliance

when he becomes an adult. They hold that an artificial limb should be given when a person becomes an adult. People overlook the fact that, if a child does not wear a prosthetic appliance at an early stage, he will find it very hard to use it at a later stage. Moreover, as the children of to-day are the citizens of tomorrow, no expenditure on them is too high. All attempts should be directed towards the rehabilitation of the crippled, medically, socially and psychologically. He must be helped to lead as normal a life as is possible in spite of his limitations and to 'carve his life out of the wood he has'.

V. D. IN THE INDUSTRIAL WORKER—A MEDICO-SOCIAL STUDY

M. N. RAO & H. C. GANGULI

The problem of venereal disease among industrial workers is a vast and complicated one. The writers of this article have carried out a survey in a Government Clinic for venereal diseases at Calcutta and come to the conclusion that, apart from curative and preventive methods and control of prostitution, a wide dissemination of sex knowledge and treatment facilities is necessary among workers for a proper solution of this problem.

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The object of the present survey is primarily to investigate the social background of patients with venereal diseases coming from the industrial population of Calcutta. The study covers an investigation into the family life of the patient, his living conditions, his personal habits and his special needs as engendered by these conditions, and opportunities of satisfying them. The medical aspect of the study has been mainly confined to the description of his symptoms and the treatment he had undergone. An attempt has also been made to gauge the depth of the patient's knowledge about venereal diseases and how far he applies that knowledge to his activities.

Method of Investigation.—The questionnaire method has been adopted, for the collection of factual data. An elaborate schedule was prepared in which the different questions to which answers sought were properly arranged. The schedule was prepared for use in the Power-Samas Sorting machine, the use of this greatly minimising the computational work. The Public Health Department of the Government of West Bengal kindly consented to our interviewing the patients at a Government Venereal Diseases Clinic in Calcutta as subjects of this study. After the candidate was examined by the medical officer of the Clinic and confined to be a genuine case of venereal disease, the patient was sent for interview with us. The interview took place in a small and secluded room set aside by the

Clinic authorities for this purpose. At the outset each candidate was told briefly the object of the meeting and was reassured of its confidential nature. Names, of course, were not asked for. As a result, although every candidate was told that the interview was purely voluntary, only two decided not to participate. The schedule was filled up by the interviewer on the basis of the answers given by the candidate. As the schedule was lengthy, containing 52 independent items, each interview lasted for about 20 minutes.

Results.—(a) The two groups—Industrial and Non-industrial: Five hundred patients were interviewed at this clinic. Of these, 121 were petty businessmen, 74 permanent factory workers, 61 independent workers like carpenters etc., 54 bearers, peons, etc., 50 clerks and office-workers, 24 coolies, 22 unscheduled factory workers, and 21 transportmen; the rest did nothing in particular. Thus the largest number of patients belong to the group of petty businessmen (24%). Permanent factory workers come only to 15% of the total. But if the definition of a factory worker is not limited only to the permanent factory workers in a registered perennial factory or mine, it can be said that the casual industrial worker, the cooly, the transportman, the independent worker and the unscheduled factory worker also fall in the category of the industrial worker side by side with the permanent factory worker. In other words, out of 500 candidates, 202

can be regarded as industrial workers (group A) while the other 298 as belonging to the non-industrial group (group B). The results of the analysis of the data collected are given below. Findings amongst the industrial group (A) are given more prominence, but wherever necessary, these have been compared with findings of the non-industrial group (B).

(b) *Personal and Family History:* (i) *General.*—All the 500 candidates examined are males. 65% amongst them fall within the age-group 21-30 years. There are only 16 patients above 41 years and none below 16. Amongst industrial workers (group A), about 1/3rd (34%) belong to the State of West Bengal, 25% to Bihar and 22% to East Bengal. The rest come from U. P., Orissa, Madras and other States in this order of frequency. The majority of the industrial workers (79% or 160) are Hindus. There are also 39 (19%) Muslims and three Christians. This Hindu-Muslim ratio is similar to the communal ratio in the Calcutta male population—71.4: 28.5 (1941 Census).

(ii) *Wages.*—The industrial workers (group A) fall into 3 clear-cut wage-groups, the model wage-group being Rs. 11/- to Rs. 25/- a week (78% of the workers) with a mean of about Rs. 17/8/- per worker per week. Twelve per cent of the workers earn Rs. 26/- or more per week, the higher amongst them earning Rs. 71/- a week, i.e., Rs. 300/- a month. About the same number of workers (21 or 11%) earn only Rs. 5/- to Rs. 10/- per week. (The daily and monthly paid workers also were converted to weekly wage group for uniformity).

(iii) *Marital Status.*—Out of the 500 patients only 275 (55%) are married, 113 out of 202 (56%) in the industrial group and 162 out of 298 (55%) in the non-industrial group. Irregular sexual relation is thus not a monopoly of the bachelors alone.

An analysis has been attempted to elicit how many of these married men were leading a married life at the time of exposure. The analysis proved very rough indeed, specially because of the time interval between the day of exposure and the day of interrogation. The histories were so vague and indefinite that hardly 185 (80 from the 113 industrial group and 105 out of 162 in the non-industrial group) case histories from among the 275 candidates was of any significance. It is only these 185 that could with some definiteness mention or remember whether they were living with their wives or not at the time of exposure and if not, how long they were alone. Out of the 80 industrial workers, 2 had permanently separated themselves from their wives; 5 were widowers; 50 were living alone for varying periods; and 23 were living with their wives at the time of exposure. Out of 105 definite marriage histories in the non-industrial group, 2 were permanently separated; 6 were widowers; wives of 70 were living away; and 27 were living with their wives at the time of exposure. Thus 26% of the non-industrial married group had exposed themselves while living with wives as compared with 29% of the married industrial workers.

It is interesting to note that even though 50 amongst the 185 married candidates out of the total group of 500 were living with their wives at the time of exposure, their home conditions were not always favourable to normal marital relations. From the history case sheets of the married, every seventh man is seen compelled to live in the same room with the wife and children as well as the members of the family.

Thus it can be concluded that more than 90% of the patients who contract venereal disease are either bachelors or, due to circumstances, leading single life. The importance of home life in a venereal disease

control programme is therefore obvious. This applies with a greater force to industrial housing and control of venereal disease in the industrial workers.

(iv) *History of the Infection.*—Of the 500 cases examined, 23% of them were carrying their infection for a fortnight or less and 41% for more than 5 months. In group A (the industrial group) 31% had their infection less than 2 weeks before while 40% had it before 5 months or more. The infection of the others were somewhere between 3 to 18 weeks old before the date of interview.

Ninety per cent (either in the entire group or industrial group separately) of the candidates examined reported having contracted the disease from a woman of some sort. The remaining 10% of the candidates reported the source to be urinal, lavatory, etc. Their authenticity is, however, doubtful.

A large majority of cases of infection was in brothels; 80% of workers and 77% of the whole group got the disease from prostitutes in registered brothels. Nine per cent of the workers and 14% of the group B reported contracting the disease at the homes of the girls. Obviously these girls carry on their trade without proper licence and consequently without any theoretical facilities of periodic medical examinations. There are few cases reported of the disease being contracted from beggar girls (2) and maid servants (3).

The exposure was effected mostly in the nights, though cases of morning or afternoon exposure are not altogether absent. On week-days business is slack; it is particularly heavy on Sundays and other festival days which are the days on which the majority of industrial workers expose themselves.

An enquiry into the money spent by the workers for each exposure has also been

made. Information was available from 188 patients in Group A.

TABLE I
SHOWING MONEY SPENT FOR EACH
EXPOSURE AMONGST 188 INDUSTRIAL
WORKERS:

Money group	No. of patients in each group.	Money group	No. of patients in each group.
Nothing	21	Rs. 2/- & less than Rs. 3.	58
4 as. or less	0	Rs. 3/- & less than Rs. 4/-	21
5 as. to 8 as.	3	Rs. 4/- & less than Rs. 5/-	19
9 as. to 15 as.	0	Rs. 5/- to Rs. 10/-	18
Re. 1/- & less than Rs. 2.	36	More than Rs. 10/-	12

It will be seen from the above table that more than 10% of the workers spent nothing for their exposure. Half of them (94) spent anything between Re. 1/- to Rs. 3/- for each exposure. More than one-third of the group (70 or 37%) spent Rs. 3/- or more, even upto Rs. 10/- each. The average cost of each exposure works out to about Rs. 3-6-0.

(v) *Prophylaxis.*—It is not surprising to know that out of these 500 patients interviewed only one had taken any precaution against infection during exposure. The prophylaxis used was the condom by the male. None of them could say whether their partners had used any prophylactic measures. The candidates were asked as to any treatment they had taken after exposure and before appearance of first symptom. Ninety-eight per cent of the workers never thought it necessary to have any treatment or consult a doctor before the first symptom appeared. Only one cooly had the good sense of going to a doctor and taking a dose of arsenic in-

jection; two others had taken some medicine from some unlicensed practitioner.

(vi) *The First Symptom and After.*—About 59% of the workers as well as of the whole group had their first symptoms in the form of ulcers on the penis. Urethral symptoms like difficulty in urination, appearance of pus, etc., were also very predominant, affecting as many as 72% of the whole group. Of extra-genital symptoms fever was the most common affecting as many as 28% of the workers. But 60% of the workers had no extra-genital symptoms at all. The vast majority of these first symptoms appeared within a fortnight of the exposure. But 9 workers had their first symptoms after the 3rd month of exposure.

After the appearance of the first symptom nearly 35% or at least one-third of the workers attended the clinic where this study was made. Another 44% (89) consulted qualified private practitioners. The rest of the workers did not do anything in particular in the form of treatment after the appearance of the first symptoms or had consulted either a friend, a vaid, a homcopath etc. In other words, nearly four-fifth of the workers consulted some sort of medical men (including this clinic) after the appearance of the first symptoms.

Those who had treated themselves prior to coming to this clinic had gone to the medical men of their choice; 61 workers (30%) had consulted one doctor each and the remaining 28 (14%) more than one. Two amongst them consulted as many as five doctors successively. An analysis of these 89 workers who had come to the clinic after once being treated by medical men shows that the mildness of the early attack together with the lack of much pain gives the patient a false security of the cure of the disease. Most of the cases that started treat-

ment immediately after the appearance of the first symptoms discontinued going to the doctor within a month. There were some, however, who continued for as long as ten weeks. When asked for the reason why they had stopped their previous treatment, 39 of these 89 candidates gave disappearance of the symptoms as the main reason and another 38 because they found the treatment ineffective. Eleven candidates were told by the doctors themselves to go to the clinic. Incidentally only three gave up treatment mainly because of financial strain. It should also be mentioned here that several of the candidates stopped treatment on the advice of the doctors who considered them cured. Obviously these doctors were either not true to their profession or did not have facilities for making proper serological tests of their patients.

The most frequent answers given to the question as to why they have come to this particular clinic was because the patient had just heard of it or been sent here by a friend (73%). Negligible expense was an incentive only for 9% of the workers. This evidently shows that the money factor is not the most important deterrent to the workers in Calcutta for consulting qualified doctors for venereal diseases.

Discussion.—Accurate figures for the incidence of venereal diseases for the general population of India are not easily come across. The few figures available are, it is unfortunate, conflicting. For example, in Calcutta alone three research workers give three opinions. Krishnan (1935-36) from group samples of 300-400 cases each reports after serological examination an incidence rate of syphilis of 5 to 22% in different occupational groups. Ahmed (1948) reports that out of 3,84,572 out-patients treated in all municipal dispensaries in Calcutta in the year 1945-46 there were 4040 i.e. 1.5% cases

of primary and secondary syphilis (and 4,639 or 1.22% of gonorrhoea). The Imperial Serologist to the Government of India in concluding a series of three papers, on the Wassermann positive rates of cases from hospitals and venereal clinics of Calcutta, one for the years 1939, 1943 and 1944, the second with 1945 also and the third with 1947 added (Greval et al 1944, 1945, 1947) believes that 'syphilis in Calcutta is declining and was never really a menace as it has been made out to be'. But to test serologically a sample of cases suspected to have the infection and noting how many of the suspected actually have that infection is more a test of the ability of the doctor in picking out the infected cases rather than of the incidence of the infection in the population concerned. In an earlier publication (Greval & Sen 1942) an unselected sample of bloods from general hospital admissions indicated a rate of 5.3% contrary to the earlier findings of Iyengar (1919) who gave an incidence figure of 22% and that of Lloyd et al (1930) who gave an incidence figure of 20%, from other centres in India. With so much variation in published figures on incidence of serologically positive venereal disease in a big city like Calcutta, a uniform venereal disease rate in industries is hardly to be expected. In the U. S. A., for example, there are very accurate reports, but these also show a great variation in incidence of venereal disease in industrial workers in different parts of that country. Russell (1940) gives the results of blood tests for syphilis in different samples of industrial workers. "An industry near Chicago has completed over 10,000 blood tests and found that 5% of the workers have positive tests. A group of industries in Chicago has completed tests totalling more than 66,000 with three per cent positive. In Cincinnati 5,768 workers in various industries were given blood tests and 2.75% were found positive."

The Syphilis Study Commission of the World Health Organization (1949) estimated the cost of labour lost in the U. S. A. in the year 1940 due to syphilis alone to be more than one hundred million dollars.

These figures from American Industries seem to be lower than comparable ones from India—which are however very few. Krishnan (1935-36) reports a serological positive rate of 10 to 12 per cent. Murti (1949) tested 500 bloods which were sent for tests other than the Kahn and the W. R. Fortynine of these 500 gave positive reaction, thus giving an incidence percentage of 9.8. About 10% of the Indian workers can therefore be considered sero-positive. From the Public Health point of view half a million sources of infection!

The problem of venereal disease control is vast and the solution is proportionately complex. More than one has to co-operate actively in controlling venereal disease adequately. Such a control programme must basically consist of two lines of action—curative and preventive. Curative method includes treating the patient and the source (case finding). Preventive method includes improvement of the living conditions and raising the standard of education of the working population as a group. A few salient points in each of these form an important part of the control programme and are discussed below.

In treating the infective cases, apart from other factors, the co-operation of the employers is necessary. The worker should be assured that he would not be discharged for contracting the infection if he is getting himself properly treated for it. This absence of victimisation will remove one of the causes of the worker keeping away from the factory doctor or in fact from any public clinic lest his infection should be known to others.

Concurrent to treating the patient is treating the source. As a necessary corollary of treating the source (case finding), for example, some steps should be taken towards a stricter control of brothels. E. G. Johnson (1942) found that the commercial prostitute operating in brothels and elsewhere was responsible for the great majority of venereal infection in the U. S. Army. Ninety per cent of the infection in the present study has been got from the commercial prostitute. When brothels close, venereal disease rates go down. Supervision and regulation of prostitution or total abolition have been attempted in different countries with varied success. Stricter medical legislation for compulsory treatment of the source must accompany any of these social measures.

Side by side with the restriction of prostitution, should go attempts towards improvement in the living conditions of the workers. In the present study, 57 out of 80 married workers (whose histories could be traced) contracted the disease when the wives were living away. So long as the worker has to live alone and away from his family, the *raison-d'etre* of the visit to the brothel is not removed. For that a decent family life under reasonable living conditions is a primary pre-requisite. Why the workers live alone is a problem for the politician and the social worker. Usually the cause is a mere subsistence level income together with non-availability of decent houses at cheap rates.

The fourth and an equally important preventing factor is the proper health education. Teaching the employees the facts about venereal diseases, how they are contracted, spread and cured and also about prophylaxis is a prime necessity in a public health programme, more so in an illiterate country like ours. An attempt was therefore made in this enquiry to assess the present educational level of the workers on sex problems.

In the present group of industrial workers as many as 107 or 53% of the total admitted having no knowledge whatsoever about venereal diseases. Of the remaining 95, 91 knew that it spreads through sexual intercourse only and 55 knew that the diseases are communicable to the wife and children. And unfortunately only 11 knew the diseases to be completely curable, though only 3 realised the importance of early treatment. And since this group can be regarded as being representative of the general illiterate industrial population of India, the need for education and the dissemination of information regarding venereal diseases is evident.

Summary.—In this study a group of 500 venereal disease cases, out of which 202 were industrial workers, were interviewed at a local Government clinic for venereal diseases. The details of the findings are given.

About 90% of the workers, both married and unmarried, contracted the disease from prostitutes. Knowledge about sex and venereal disease amongst the workers is practically non-existent and none had used any prophylaxis. The need for sex education, therefore, is emphasized.

An education programme by itself does not remove the maladjustments in the worker's personal life, of which the contraction of the venereal disease is a symptom. Hence the importance of Industrial Housing is also stressed.

The two other important aspects of a venereal disease control programme of the source or the prostitute, and liberalising the treatment facilities of the worker are outlined.

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NEWS AND NOTES

TENTH CONVOCATION—DECEMBER 3, 1950

REPORT OF THE DIRECTOR

On this occasion of the Tenth Convocation of the Institute, I have great pleasure in submitting my report on the activities during the year under review. Exactly twelve months have elapsed since my last report was presented and the Institute has progressed in various directions with a slow but steady pace. We are now engaged in consolidating the different sections to increase their efficiency and usefulness.

Anticipating the need for qualified workers in Public Welfare, we organised a new Division of Specialisation in this field in January this year under the guidance of Dr. B. H. Metha of the Faculty. Though the Governments, both at the Centre and in the States, are interested in having departments of Public Welfare Administration, they have not been able to do so owing to financial stringency. We, therefore, took a cautious step in this direction by allowing specialisation in Public Welfare Administration with particular emphasis on Labour Welfare or Child Welfare. With the appointment of Mr. N. F. Kaikobad, B. A., Dip. S. S. A., M. S. W. (Pittsburgh) as a full-time member of the Faculty in January, this Division has the advantage of having the services of a young specialist in Social Group Work and Community Organisation.

A graduate of the Bombay University, Mr. Kaikobad was a student of the Institute in the years 1942-'44 and took the Diploma in Social Service Administration. Between 1944 and 1946 he worked as a Superintendent of Social Work with the Zoroastrian Welfare Association. Mr. Kaikobad went to the United States in 1946 for advanced training in social work techniques. He

studied at the Institute of Applied Social Sciences, University of Pittsburgh in the U. S. A. till 1948 and specialised in Social Group Work. In 1949, he joined the Institute as a part-time lecturer and was appointed a full time member of the Faculty on January 1, 1950.

Since the subject of Public Welfare is new, arrangements had to be made for adequate field work experience which forms an important part of training. With this object in view, Dr. Mehta has been busy with socio-economic survey of the Worli area as a preliminary step towards organising a Community Centre in this locality to provide field work facilities. Our plan envisages a systematic co-ordination of existing welfare agencies in Worli, and the students have been doing intensive spade work in that area. Realising the importance of this undertaking, we transferred Mrs. Indira Renu, till last year Psychiatric Social Worker in the Child Guidance Clinic, to this Centre as Community Organiser to assist Dr. Metha in his programme of work. As social welfare activities of the St. Georges Hospital were discontinued for lack of finances, Miss D. M. Taraporevala of the Field Work Section, who was supervising this work, is also helping in the Worli Community Welfare project. We feel sure that this experiment will yield fruitful results in the near future and will perhaps serve as an incentive to other similar developments in the sphere of Public Welfare in other parts of the country.

Dr. M. V. Moorthy's report on the Squatters' Survey undertaken on behalf of the Bombay Municipality in May 1949, has now been published by them. I am glad to state

that this year we undertook another social research project, a shopping survey of selected areas in Greater Bombay, on behalf of the Bombay Municipality. Dr. A. M. Lorenzo, under whose supervision the survey was conducted, has submitted his report on his findings to the sponsoring agency. It is hoped that the report will prove helpful in the implementation of the Master Plan of Greater Bombay. The inquiry into the social and economic aspects of drinking in urban Bombay which was undertaken in December 1948, is nearing completion and Dr. Lorenzo is expected to submit his report on this survey in the near future.

Although it was announced in my last report that the training programme in Applied Anthropology and Tribal Welfare would be inaugurated in July 1950, I regret to say, it had to be abandoned owing to the inability of Dr. D. N. Majumdar of the Lucknow University to join the Institute.

However, we are fortunate in securing the services of Dr. P. H. Prabhu, B. A. (Hons.), LL. B., as Reader in Applied Psychology and Social Research. Dr. Prabhu was formerly in the Bombay Educational Service as Lecturer and for some time officiating University Lecturer in Sociology, Bombay University. In 1948, the Bombay Government awarded him Government Overseas Scholarship and sent him for further studies in modern methods of teaching and research in Psychology. Dr. Prabhu toured the U. S. A. and the Continent for two years and made an observation study of latest developments in the methodology of sociological and psychological researches in American and Continental Universities. While in the U. S. A. he was appointed visiting scholar in the Psychology Departments of Columbia and Pennsylvania Universities and an Honorary Fellow of the Minnesota and Ohio State Universities. Dr. Prabhu is the author of

"Hindu Social Institutions—Their Psychological Implications" and has also published ten papers and monographs on allied subjects. The appointment of Dr. Prabhu, we feel confident, will strengthen the Industrial Relations Division as well as the Bureau of Research and Publications. It is our ambition to build up gradually the Bureau of Social Research and undertake more and more research studies pertaining to our social problems.

It was reported last year that we were negotiating, in co-operation with the U. N. and the Government of India, for securing the services of a technical expert from the U. S. to organise a training programme in Criminology and Correctional Administration. We now learn that the well-known Criminologist Dr. Walter C. Reckless of the Ohio State University will arrive in India in October 1951 when we hope to start this new Division.

Speaking about the Faculty, I am proud to mention that though they are small in number, they have been connected in one capacity or another with the work of as many as the following ten Universities: Allahabad, Andhra, Baroda, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Gauhati, Mysore, Patna and Poona, which is an excellent testimony to their academic attainments and professional standards. Members of the staff are also deputed to participate in conferences dealing with different aspects of social work. By the end of this year, the Institute would have taken part in at least six National and Provincial Conferences: (1) The All India Penological Conference, Lucknow, (2) Conference of Experts on Physically Handicapped Children, Jamshedpur, (3) Indian Conference of Social Work, Jamshedpur, (4) Bombay Province Physical Education Conference, Ahmedabad, (5) All India Moral and Social Hygiene Conference, Delhi and

(6) The All India Medical Conference, Sholapur.

In the All India Medical Conference, a section has been assigned this year for the theme of hospital social service, and Dr. Miss G. R. Banerjee will be deputed to read a paper on this subject. She read an instructive paper on "Social Worker in the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign" at the Sixth Tuberculosis Workers' Conference, held in Calcutta in December 1948, as a result of which the Governments of India and Bombay have now decided to depute candidates to the Institute for specialising in social work in Tuberculosis setting. We have no doubt that the ensuing Medical Conference will achieve greater results in this direction. In this connection, I may mention that hospital social service is gradually developing in Bombay and recently new posts of Hospital Social Worker were created in two major hospitals in the city. All the students who underwent training in this special branch last year have now been well employed. We hope we shall be able to help in the organisation of social service departments in leading hospitals in India by sending out a larger number of well qualified hospital social workers in the years to come. Thus we are striving to bring about greater understanding in the medical profession of the importance of social and emotional factors influencing an illness situation and also of the need of a joint socio-medical diagnosis in the treatment of human ailments.

Apart from participating in such conferences, the Faculty also make their expert services available in an advisory capacity to various social service agencies and governmental as well as non-governmental committees. The Division of Industrial Relations and Personnel Management, with Dr. M. V. Moorthy in charge, has been reinforced with the addition of Dr. Prabhu and the

Institute is now in a position to offer consultant service to industrial organisations in matters of research and labour-management relations. I may also mention that Drs. Prabhu and Mrs. Kamala Bhoota of the Faculty are members of the Local Advisory Committee for the Study of Group Tensions, undertaken by the Government of India with Dr. Gardner Murphy of City College, New York, as UNESCO consultant. At the request of Dr. Murphy, Dr. Prabhu prepared a manual of instructions for the benefit of interviewers engaged in this research work.

A new development which I am particularly pleased to report is the organisation of a Family Welfare Agency in Bombay this year. It was some months ago that a few enthusiastic professional social workers of the Indian Conference of Social Workers met to discuss a scheme of starting a Family Welfare Agency in Bombay, drawn up by Dr. Banerjee. It was felt that in a big city like ours, where family problems are acute and complicated due to various reasons, social scientists should tackle the problem of family living, considering family life as the cornerstone of a good society. A Committee was set up to take the necessary steps in this direction. With the financial help of the N. M. Wadia Charities, the American Woman's Club and a munificent donation of Rs. 3,000/-, sanctioned by the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust, the Agency was brought into being on the 1st May 1950, and Miss Usha Rani Kanai, a graduate of the Institute, was appointed Family Case Worker. Lady Jehangir and Dr. K. S. Mhaskar of the Bombay Mothers' and Children's Welfare Society, kindly agreed to allow the Agency to have its office at their Society's premises at Delisle Road, Bombay. In addition to being an Honorary Hospital Supervisor of three Government Hospitals and one private hospital in the city, Dr. Miss

Bancrjee serves as technical adviser to the Family Welfare Agency, the only pioneer organisation counselling the public on family matters. It is common knowledge that a number of problems concerning family life, if tackled at the proper time and in the right way, naturally obviate their offshoots such as juvenile delinquency, alcoholism and prostitution. This Centre, we hope, will become a valuable field work agency for our students specialising in Family and Child Welfare, thus affording facilities for practical training in this field on scientific lines.

A notable event of the year was the visit of the Chief Minister, Shri B. G. Kher to the Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital for Children where we have been conducting a special school for bedridden children since February 1949 under the supervision of Dr. Mrs. Bhoota. The Chief Minister, on his second visit to the Hospital on the 24th March 1950, was satisfied with the progress made under this novel scheme and was impressed by the spirit of joy and cheerfulness which prevailed among the children. Another notable event was Shri Jawaharlal Nehru's visit on Monday, the 6th November 1950, to this Hospital and to the School. It will interest you to know that those children who were better in health put up a short variety entertainment programme before the distinguished gathering present on the occasion. When I invited the Prime Minister to visit the School, he not only readily agreed to do so but also gave me a cheque for Rs. 250/- to buy toys and playthings for the bedridden children. Careful selection of these gifts from the Prime Minister was made, and they were distributed to the children before his visit. I am pleased to mention that Mr. P. B. Godrej, Managing Director of Messrs. Godrej & Boyce Manufacturing Co. Ltd., kindly donated a steel cupboard to the School, for which we are thankful to him. Let me express our warmest thanks to the Prime

Minister for his kind donation and for his kindly visit to the ailing children who were much enlivened by his visit. We also owe our debt to you, Rajkumariji, for your visit to the Hospital yesterday which was a source of joy and encouragement to the ailing children.

While dealing with our work among children, I should like to refer to the Child Guidance Clinic of the Institute. Some time ago, it was keenly felt that the Clinic, which we maintain as a social service agency for the public and a laboratory for students to study and practise case work techniques, should be reorganised with a view to establishing modern standards and enhancing its usefulness. Accordingly, Dr. Miss Banerjee took over charge of the Clinic in July this year with Dr. Mrs. Bhoota as the Psychologist and Dr. J. C. Marfatia as the Psychiatrist. Since its reorganisation, it is gratifying to report that the Clinic is showing better results with a marked increase in its case load and we are hopeful that the clinic will render much better service to children with behaviour disorders and give valuable guidance to their parents. This Psychiatric Social Work of the Clinic is now being carried on by our students as part of their practical training in case work.

As it was done last year, this year too we arranged a course of lectures, entitled *Medical Information* for our new students, with the co-operation of specialists in the fields of Children's ailments, eye and its diseases, ear, nose and throat, elements of Anatomy and Physiology, Leprosy, V. D., T. B. and Cancer. I wish to convey our deep sense of gratitude to the following doctors who participated in this programme: R. N. Cooper, S. N. Cooper, Arthur DeSa, Mrs. B. M. Dubash, N. Figueredo, Socrates Noronha, Bhasker Patel and J. C. Paymaster.

Dr. M. N. Rao of the All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, also gave a course of lectures on *Industrial Hygiene* to our students specialising in Industrial Relations and Personnel Management. In addition, Mr. B. D. Chirputkar, Industrial Relations Officer, Ford Motor Co. (India) Ltd., Bombay, one of our honorary visiting lecturers, gave a course of lectures on Industrial Relations and Labour Legislation to the same class. Miss M. J. Kutar, one of our alumni, who underwent special training in the U. K. and the U. S. A. in 1949 and who is now on the staff of the School for Training of Children in Need of Special Care, gave two lectures to our students on "*The Mentally Deficient Child*".

Apart from these honorary visiting lecturers, we are often privileged to hear distinguished scholars visiting the Institute. In September, Dr. Gardner Murphy, whom I have mentioned earlier in this report, was amongst us and addressed the Faculty and the students on the *Problem of Social Integration*. Among other lecture programmes was a course of four lectures on *The Family* by Dr. Mrs. Winifred Bryce of the Indore Christian College. We also had the privilege of hearing Dr. Miss F. P. Kittrell of the Howard University, U. S. A., now Visiting Professor in the Home Economics Department of the Baroda University. She is the first to be selected as Visiting Professor to India under the Fulbright Scheme. Dr. Kittrell is a Negro lady coming from a Negro University which is now rapidly becoming cosmopolitan. We were pleased to have in our midst Mr. W. Harris, who was until recently Head of the Education Department of the U. N. Mr. Svend Pederson and Mr. Sven Grabe, of the I. L. O. addressed our students, specialising in Labour, who were also privileged to hear Mr. F. S. Chothia on the subject of Vocational Guidance. Shri

J. C. Kumarappa, President of the All-India Village Industries Association, delivered a series of four stimulating lectures on Gandhian Economy. All these lectures were much enjoyed by our students.

Among other noted persons who visited the Institute in the course of the year may be mentioned Shri Lal Ranjit Singh Bariha, Minister for Rural and Tribal Welfare, Government of Orissa, Shri Jwaleswar Prasad, Central Labour Commissioner, Government of India, Col. S. L. Bhatia, then Surgeon General with the Madras Government and Mr. Roger F. Evans of the Rockefeller Foundation, U. S. A.

This year we also arranged at the Institute shows of some interesting films relating to social work, with the cooperation of the British Information Services, Bombay, for which our thanks are due to the authorities of the British Information Services.

The Bureau of Research and Publications brought out a Special Number of the *Indian Journal of Social Work* giving the proceedings of the Third Session of the Indian Conference of Social Work held in Delhi in December last. A pamphlet prepared by Dr. Banerjee for Doctors outlining the nature and functions of Hospital Social Service Department, is in the Press and will be out shortly.

It was mentioned in my last year's Report that the 1947-49 class donated the Guinea Pig Trophy to the Institute, to be awarded annually to the best student debater. The first debate for the award of the Trophy was held on the 6th October 1950, and I am happy to announce that Mr. S. G. Tungare of the Preprofessional Class was judged to be the best debater of the year. The Trophy will be presented to him this evening.

With reference to admissions to the Institute, I am glad to report that we continue to draw a large number of students from different parts of India as well as neighbouring countries. This year we considered 133 applicants of whom only 31 were admitted. The state-wise distribution of applications received and admissions made is given below:—

States	Applications Received	Admissions made
Assam	3	Nil
Bengal	3	"
Bihar	6	"
Bombay	24	11
Ceylon	Nil	Nil
Delhi	2	"
Hyderabad	6	2
Kashmir	Nil	Nil
Madhya Bharat	1	1
Madhya Pradesh	4	2
Madras	20	1
Mysore	4	2
Orissa	3	1
Punjab	12	1
Rajasthan	3	1
Saurashtra	6	2
Travancore & Cochin	17	2
Uttar Pradesh	15	4
Vindhya Pradesh	1	1
Other Areas	Nil	3
Total	133	31

At present we have 16 scholars either deputed by different State Governments or financed by private agencies for training at the Institute, shown as under:

Class	Men	Women
Professional	5	1
Basic	3	Nil
Specialisation	6	1
Total:	14	2

Out of the total 84 students on the roll this term, 26 members of the Senior class will be awarded the Diploma in Social Service Administration this evening, of whom 11 have specialised in Industrial Relations and Personnel Management, 2 in Family and Child Welfare and 13 in Public Welfare Administration. As there is a great need for

a trained and qualified band of workers in different spheres of social work, we hope that those who graduate today will not find it difficult to secure suitable placements. It is hardly necessary for me to mention that the Institute continues to do its best to recommend its alumni for responsible positions whenever requests are made, and also to direct students to suitable jobs wherever available. In this connection, I may mention that most of the students who graduated in December last, have been well placed and three of them have gone abroad for advanced study. Miss R. Thangavelu of the last batch participated in the enquiry into the travel conditions of Deck Passengers conducted by the Deck Passengers' Committee appointed by the Government of India.

Some years ago, a suggestion was made that a Fund should be formed known as 'Alumni Loan Fund. But unfortunately this did not materialise till now for want of initiative and effort. It was only a few weeks ago that our students expressed a desire to organise a variety entertainment programme in aid of the Assam Earthquake Relief Fund and the Student Aid Fund. Accordingly, preparations were made and I am glad to state that this programme was staged on the 6th November 1950 at St. Xavier's College Hall in the presence of a large gathering. Out of the total net collection of Rs. 3,036 a sum of Rs. 1,518 was donated towards the Prime Minister's Relief Fund, earmarked for the Assam Earthquake Relief Fund, the balance being utilised towards the Student Aid Fund. This is the first time that our students went to the public for financial help for two worthy causes and they deserve our warmest congratulations on their achievement. Our thanks are due to all those who contributed generously towards the two Funds and helped to make the function a success.

It is with a deep sense of sorrow that I mention here the death of Miss P. F. Ginnwalla, an alumnus of the Institute, who passed away after a prolonged illness patiently borne. We convey our heartfelt condolences to the bereaved family.

Referring to our alumni, I am glad to report that Mr. B. Chatterjee represented the Indian Conference of Social Work at the International Conference of Social work, held in Paris in July last. It is gratifying to mention that five of our alumni were awarded the U. N. Social Welfare Fellowships this year, which brings the total number of the alumni, who have gone abroad for advanced study on Scholarships and on U. N. Observation Fellowships in different fields of social work, to thirty-four.

As it was reported last year, plans for buildings for the Institute were duly completed and work was to start at Worli, when it was felt that our permanent habitation should be in a semi-urban area where more adequate land could be acquired to meet our growing demands and changing needs. Accordingly, a proposal was put up for building structures on a small colony basis, thus affording healthy, natural and open air life, promoting personal contact and developing community life between our students and staff. This programme was discussed in detail and was finally approved. Difficulties, however, were experienced in selecting a suitable site and it was only after persistent efforts for locating an appropriate area that we succeeded in finding one near Chembur. I am now glad to report that the site has been finally approved by the Governing Board and the Trustees and the work of preparing suitable building plans and other formalities will be gone through to expedite the building programme to make up for the loss of six months or so on account of the change in our policy.

As professional schools of social work are being established, the question of standardisation of courses and uniformity in training programme has been receiving serious consideration. In September, the Ministry of Education, Government of India convened a meeting of the Inter-departmental Committee to discuss this matter and other related issues such as duration of courses, subject contents, recognition of degrees and diplomas for employment. The Social Welfare Advisory Board also met to consider the recommendations of the Committee, and the Director of this Institute was asked to submit a report to the Government of India on this subject. In the light of this development, the Governing Board of the Institute has now decided to reduce the present two and a half year course to a two year course in order to be in line with other schools of social work in the country. But the question of providing a third year course in our Institute for the training of candidates for teaching posts in schools of social work as well as of specialists to fill more responsible positions in different fields of social work, is under consideration.

This year, there have been two changes on the Governing Board of the Institute. Mr. D. R. D. Tata is now the second representative of the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust. The Government of India's nominee on the Board is at present Mr. Ashfaq Husain, Deputy Secretary, Ministry of Education, in place of Dr. R. M. Halder, Asstt. Educational Adviser, Minister of Education. While we are happy to welcome these new members, we wish to record our warm sense of appreciation of the keen interest which Dr. Halder took in our work during his term of advisory service to the Institute.

Let me take this opportunity to thank all those individuals, institutions and Governments who have extended their valued

assistance and helped us to carry on our increasing burden with success. And now before I close this Report, I wish to thank the Trustees, the Chairman as well as the Members of the Governing Board for their constant encouragement and counsel; also the Faculty and the Staff for their kind co-

operation in my ever-growing duties as Director. Under the beneficent influence of all the well-wishers of the Institute, I have no doubt we shall ever be of service to the country by sending out batches of well trained social workers to help the needy and the maladjusted to help themselves.

TENTH CONVOCATION

WELCOME SPEECH BY DR. JOHN MATTHAI

Rajkumari Amrit Kaur, Dr. Kumarappa, Ladies and Gentlemen,

I would like at the outset to say on behalf of the Trustees of the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust that it is a matter of gratification to us that the Institute of Social Sciences is showing such steady progress from year to year. A report of the kind which the Director has read to us enables us to make only a quantitative measurement of the progress achieved by the Institute; but from such personal knowledge as I have, I believe that the Institute has made good progress also in other directions. I remember visiting the Institute four years ago before I left Bombay for Delhi and recently, since my return to Bombay, I have had an opportunity of seeing the Institute at work again and I noticed a perceptible difference. It is beginning to show a life and spirit of its own and this, in the case of an educational institution, is a factor of great importance.

I believe the Institute is fulfilling a real need in the country. The problems with which it deals had not perhaps assumed their present importance and magnitude when it was founded fifteen years ago. It is a tribute to the pioneering tradition of the House of Tata that they recognised the need for an institution of this kind long before others. The pioneering work done by the House of Tata in the field of basic industries

is now universally acknowledged, but its pioneering service in other fields which are ancillary to the establishment of basic industries, has yet to find the recognition it deserves. The Institute of Science at Bangalore, for instance, was founded nearly forty years ago at a time when conditions were hardly propitious. It has since passed through many vicissitudes, but it has now stabilised itself and has been in many respects an inspiration and focussing point for the growing structure of scientific research in the country. The founding of the Institute of Social Sciences belongs to the same category of pioneer undertakings, and already, following its example, other schools of the same kind are springing up in different parts of the country.

The purpose of the Institute is to provide scientific training for social workers. The need for social service arises from the fact that in economics, politics and public administration, organization on a large scale has been found increasingly necessary during the past hundred years. A well-disciplined organization is a great help in the accomplishment of many objects which are vital to a modern community. Particularly in a country like India which is passing through a period of transition from a rural stage of development, organization on a large scale in various fields of national activity is essen-

tial if the country is to progress in the manner we all desire.

It is, however, not generally realised that in this process of organization, a stage is often reached when a conflict arises between the need for organization and the need for providing freedom of expression for the personality of the individual human being. The fact that a human being has a personality, with will and with thoughts and emotions of his own, makes the problem of handling him very different from handling the component units of a machine. Experience has shown that wherever human activities are organized on a large scale, it is necessary that there should be room for the human touch in the sense of personal relationship among the elements which make up the organization. It is here that social service assumes importance.

A great deal of valuable work in the field of social service has been done in India during the past fifty years, but much of it has assumed the character of unfocussed and ill-informed philanthropy. The object of the Institute of Social Sciences is to provide a scientific basis for social service which will give it better direction and render it more effective. Such scientific basis implies knowledge on the one hand of the environment in which the individual works and, on the other hand, of the psychology of the indivi-

dual himself, that is, of the manner in which he behaves in a given set of circumstances and reacts to a given situation. The study of psychology has made great progress in recent years. It is this which, in the main, has made it possible to invest social service with a real scientific character. Scientific training in social service will prevent a great deal of the waste of energy and good-will which marks much of the work now being done in this field. We are, in India, at the beginning of our problems and the fact that a start has already been made in imparting scientific training to social workers will be of immense assistance in the coming years.

I am glad we have with us today Rajkumari Amrit Kaur who, as Minister of Health in the Union Government, is directly concerned with many of the problems which the Institute is engaged in studying. We shall appreciate her counsel and advice on these problems. She is here not merely as a Minister but as one who has spent many years in active social service in which, for some time, she had the great privilege of working in contact with and under the inspiration of Mahatma Gandhi. We welcome her also as an outstanding leader of the women's movement in this country because this is a field of work in which women must necessarily play a larger and more decisive part. I have much pleasure in asking Rajkumari Amrit Kaur to speak to us.

TENTH CONVOCATION

ADDRESS BY RAJKUMARI AMRIT KAUR

Dr. Matthai, Dr. Kumarappa, Ladies and Gentlemen,

I am indeed grateful for the opportunity afforded to me of visiting after a lapse of some years this pioneer Institution and of joining with you in your annual rejoicing. The Tata family has been one of those

families who have made themselves known all over India, indeed all over the world, for their contribution not only in the field of industry but also in the wider field of humanitarian endeavour. Among the many institutions for human welfare that have been founded by them the Tata Institute of

Social Sciences must take a very high place. It was apparent to all that India needed social service but it was indeed a clear vision that foresaw the need for organising social work in a scientific manner.

In a country where there had been an awakening after an age-long sleep, it was perhaps only natural that social reformers should spring up and inspire others to work for that reform which a cramped and custom-ridden society had to undergo if the country were to progress. Philanthropy came into the picture as it always does and many voluntary societies undertook work with incomparable zeal and devotion. But as so often happens with voluntary endeavour, especially when it is pioneer, work is often organised in a haphazard and unscientific manner and this has happened and continues to happen even today in our country.

India, as I have often said before, is a dry and thirsty land panting for the cooling and refreshing waters of devoted service. For this service we need qualified personnel. As in all progress in every sphere in the past few centuries it has been the West that has pioneered, so also it is they who have stressed the necessity for the introduction of high standards of training for social workers. Indeed, in a scientific age, social service has been recognised as a science. Applied Sociology, Psychiatry, Applied Economics, Applied Psychology, Case Work, Group Work, Public Welfare Administration, Criminology, Correctional Administration are terms familiar to all students of social science. Study and practical research in these subjects have developed in an amazing manner and are daily adding to the knowledge of techniques and specialisation which help to create new fields of human learning. It is a recognised fact that in no field of work can there be progress without due attention being

paid to the human entity. It is obvious, therefore, that in a country which is preeminently in need of social service, every endeavour must be made to create the personnel that will fulfil that need. We must accept the scientific approach which is at all times the practical and creative approach and which will enable us to serve in a special manner our special needs. It is for this reason that all lovers of Indian well-being must rejoice that we have an Institution of high standing in this great city of ours and that both Baroda and Delhi Universities have recently sponsored similar institutions within their jurisdiction.

We have had the good fortune to have produced during the last century social reformers of a high order and there have been and still are in our country many men and women, both known and unknown, who have sacrificed their all in the cause of social service. But ours is an immense task and workers are few. There is therefore at all times a need to coordinate all our resources both financial and administrative as also of leadership, so that none may be wasted. It is immensely important for us to raise the social and economic status of the social workers. This is particularly necessary in the difficult situation in which we today find ourselves. Time was when volunteer effort was forthcoming without much difficulty. Volunteers were drawn from the ranks of the well-to-do educated classes. But now those who were well-to-do are no longer affluent enough to provide for themselves the necessary resources. Again, those who are willing to serve often do not know how or where to find an outlet for the satisfaction of their urge. Time and again too the capacity to serve adequately is absent because of the lack of training. Governments too are, owing to financial stringency, in the unhappy position of being unable to absorb all the material at their disposal.

Nevertheless difficulties are there to be surmounted. If we acknowledge the need for social workers, we acknowledge also the need for training them. The workers trained in this and similar institutions are, it must be remembered, persons of post-graduate qualifications. They have had a specialised training. They are builders of society, men and women who are well equipped to weave a new pattern of society. As such they are not one whit less important than the teacher, the doctor, the nurse, the administrator or those who go into the Police or the Armed Forces. Their field of work, though specialised, is extremely varied. They work in labour areas, they work for family and child welfare, in schools, in hospitals, in camps, in fact they are there to lend a helping hand in times of distress and to show people how to live in normal times. They fulfil a definite need even in the most socially advanced countries in the world and, as such they should be given the economic security and status that is their due. I have seen for myself during the three years that I have had the privilege of serving the country in the cause of health what a very important part the social worker can play in the hospital, in the sanatorium, in colonies and in health propaganda in the villages. Their help is invaluable both on the preventive and curative side. And I know that this will apply equally in the cause of education, of labour welfare, of maintaining discipline and high standards of public and private morality if we have the right type of workers available. I feel, therefore, that there is a need for a change of outlook on the part of the State towards the social workers. Social work must be a recognised profession and the welfare and employment of social workers should become increasingly a national responsibility. Facilities should be forthcoming in independent India for the growth of this vital profession. Those who are trained

should be registered and I believe that an army of good social workers will stand the country in good stead at all times and be the finest weapon of defence against all outside attack as well as internal disorder. The Ministries of Labour, Education and Health are preeminently Ministries of Social Service. There should be ample room within their aegis for the development of social service through persons trained in the social sciences. The governing bodies of social service agencies should also offer the fullest cooperation and freedom for action to trained social workers. Indeed they must employ them in order to place their work on an orderly basis. I often feel that the money at the disposal of voluntary social service agencies would be far better spent on work in however small an area than on Conferences and Committees and office work. Most of us know what should be done. To find personnel to do it is the problem—a problem which must be tackled forthwith.

Fifteen years is but a brief moment in the life of a country and yet in these few years this Institute has sent out nine batches of graduates, many of whom are now holding responsible posts in their specialised fields. The batch that is going out into service this year will add a few more drops to the stream that will, I sincerely hope, continue to flow unceasingly from here. Yours, young friends, will not be an easy task. Indeed, owing to circumstances beyond our control, life for us all has not been easy ever since we gained our political independence. Our plans for the expansion of our nation-building activities which would undoubtedly have absorbed men and women of your equipment have had to be put almost in cold storage, as it were and I can enter heart and soul into the frustration caused in the minds of our youth who are willing to serve and yet are unable to find employment. But you and I and all of us have to

keep the urge to serve burning brightly within us and believe that it is a long lane that has no turning. In the meantime we must turn our hand to whatever task lies nearest to us. Political independence means nothing if it does not bring to each one of us the realisation that we have now to shoulder added responsibilities. To make or mar the future lies in our hands and particularly in the hands of youth. The sands in the hour glass are running out for many of us who worked for India's independence. We had the priceless privilege of being led by a man of outstanding genius and dynamic goodness. You are the proud possessors of a rich heritage to which this great son of India added unparalleled lustre. He was the ideal social worker. However immersed in political work he never forgot the cry of the hungry, the sick, the labourer or the oppressed. Indeed the independence he craved for India was in order to bring relief to suffering humanity and not only the suffering humanity of this land of ours but of the world—for the world is very sick today. For him the constructive programme was life blood of the Congress and I would like all of you to make that constructive programme of Gandhiji, written, I so well remember in about six hours on a train journey, your charter. He believed and he was right, that those who rendered devoted service to the rural population in particular were the real builders of India, far more important from the point of view of bringing in the Kingdom of God on earth than those who were in seats of power or authority. When we cast our eye towards the vast needs of our country, the task of the social worker is indeed an unexplored area. What can we do for educating the masses, not only teaching them to read and write but the real art of how to live? What can we do to protect them from exploitation, from disease, from internal feuds, from harmful customs? What

can we do for the delinquent and the defective child or for children as a whole for are not our children our greatest wealth if properly nurtured? What can we do for the beggar, the crippled, the maimed, and the blind? What can we do for the leper or for the sufferer from T. B. who cannot return to full time work? What can we do to rescue the criminal from his crime, the drunkard from the evils of intoxication, and what solace can we give to those in mental distress? What can we do to instil a sense of true citizenship in our people? What can we do to encourage the spirit of cooperative endeavour? What can we do to set and demand high standards of integrity in both private and public life? All this has got to be done and done efficiently. Laws can only take us up to a point. It is the realisation within us of what is good that alone can save.

You, young friends, have attained specialised knowledge. I have said that a scientific approach to problems is a correct and practical approach. Nevertheless no amount of scientific knowledge will be of avail to the social worker who does not have in him an unbounded love for and faith in humanity. Whether you teach people how to live, whether you minister to their needs in any sphere, you will always have to lay yourselves out to understand their difficulties, their limitations. Only by putting yourselves in their position, only by living with them will you be able to give them the right lead and draw them to you. India calls and it is in village India that social workers must find their true calling. On you who have had the advantage of a postgraduate training will rest the responsibility of training others and training them in the practical field. There are few graduates but there are countless young men and women willing to graduate in the school of service if only they can receive help and guidance. It is for Insti-

tutes like this and those of you who have graduated here to draw up courses of training for the less highly educated but nevertheless eager young souls whose energies may not be allowed to run waste but must be harnessed for the good of humanity.

I wish this Institute many years of expanded and increasingly useful activity and

all the new graduates have my special prayers that you may find the richness and beauty of life in your labour of love, that yours may be a vocation and not a profession and that you may be enabled to carry the torch of light and love and hope to the many millions of our land who are in darkness and in suffering. God bless you. Jai Hind.

NEW TECHNIQUE TO DETECT STOMACH CANCER.

A new technique that uses a rubber balloon to help detect stomach cancer in its early stages has been developed in the United States. It is said to be more effective than the present detection method in which the stomach contents are removed by suction and examined.

The new technique enables doctors to collect cells from the stomach before they are destroyed by digestive juice or carried off into the intestines, according to a report in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*. A small deflated rubber balloon covered with short pieces of braided silk is attached to a tube and swallowed by the patient. After the balloon is inflated, digestive movements cause some of the cells lining the stomach to be rubbed off by the gentle brushing action of the braided silk. Continuous suction through the tube removes the accumulation of gastric juices. After the

balloon is deflated and withdrawn, cells are removed by washing the balloon in a saline solution. A laboratory examination then determines their type.

Of 33 patients who were given the balloon test, 17 had malignant lesions. Stomach cells were collected from these 17 patients by the current suction method. In only four specimens were malignant cells present, and these were scarce and poorly preserved.

Cancer of the stomach is a leading type of the cancer disease, says Dr. George N. Papanicolaou, one of the three New York City doctors who developed the new detection technique. Noting that the tests were conducted on a relatively few patients who already were suspected of having cancer, he warns that the balloon test should be tried on many more persons before it can be accepted as a completely sure method of detecting stomach cancer in its early stages.

STUDY OF UTILISATION OF OLDER MANPOWER IN U.S.

The United States faces a future in which an increasing proportion of the population will be in the older age groups. A fundamental question which the nation must answer, therefore, is: how are the increasing numbers of older people to be provided with financial support? One answer which is currently attracting a great deal of attention

is to provide these older people with pension, both private and public.

But many of the men and women who reach 65 today are not "old" in the traditional sense of the word; many have skills and experience which would allow them to make valuable contributions to production were they allowed to do so.

Utilizing these older persons in productive employment would seem to be a more fruitful answer to the problem of support than pensions and arbitrary retirement. Work that older people can do will have to be found, work in which they can be both productive and self supporting.

A logical first step in answering the many complex problems involved in utilizing large numbers of older persons would seem to be an investigation of the extent to which older persons *are* being utilized at the present time and the ways in which they are employed. The study summarized here is such a first step. It describes findings in a single city—Minneapolis.

Its Objectives.—To what extent do employees who are still able to handle their usual jobs at 65 continue in their employment with Minneapolis firms beyond that age? To what extent do employees who can no longer handle their usual jobs at 65 continue in their employment with Minneapolis firms beyond that age? What methods have been devised by Minneapolis firms to utilize the services of older employees who can no longer handle their usual jobs?

Method.—During March and April, 1950, 168 Minneapolis firms were contacted, 98 by interviews with Industrial Relations Center staff members, 70 by mailed questionnaires. Only firms with 50 or more employees were chosen for study. The list from which the firms were chosen included 85-90% of all Minneapolis firms with 100 or more employees, but only 50% of firms employing less than 100. Because of these sampling limitations, caution should be used in applying the findings of the study to all of Minneapolis industry.

The Sample.—The 168 firms covered by the survey employ 56,749 people. About twice as many hourly employees as salaried

employees are employed in the sample firms. In terms of employees, the sample is composed largely of hourly rated employees in manufacturing firms with more than 500 employees. In terms of firms, the sample is composed largely of manufacturing firms with less than 500 employees.

Findings: Pension plans.—40% of the firms have pension plans. Pension plans tend to be more prevalent in larger firms. A greater proportion of salaried than hourly employees is covered. 56% of the pension firms have a compulsory retirement policy. Only 3 non-pension firms have a compulsory retirement policy.

Experience with employees reaching 65.—17% of the firms have never had any employee reach 65.

An additional 32% of the firms have never had a *salaried* employee reach 65 although hourly employees have reached 65 in the firm. Salaried people are less likely to reach 65 in employment than hourly rated.

Utilization of employees who reach 65 and are still able to handle their usual job.—Hourly employees are more likely to be kept on past 65 than salaried employees. $\frac{3}{4}$ of the firms keep on most or all hourly employees. $\frac{1}{2}$ of the firms keep on most or all salaried employees. Both hourly and salaried employees are least likely to be kept on after 65 in pension firms and in larger firms. 93% of the *non-pension* firms keep on all or most hourly employees; 87% keep on all or most salaried. 33% of the *pension* firms keep on all or most hourly employees; 26% keep on all or most salaried. 46% of the firms 500 *and over* keep on all or most of the salaried. 73% of the firms *under* 500 keep on all or most hourly; 55% keep on all or most salaried.

The major reason for not keeping on all employees past 65 who can handle their

usual job is a compulsory retirement policy. One other reason given for not keeping on all past 65 is employee's desire to retire.

Utilization of employees who reach 65 and can no longer handle their usual job.—27% of the firms reported that they had never had a case of an hourly or salaried employee reaching 65 who could no longer handle his usual job. Hourly employees are more likely to be kept on past 65 than salaried. 1/3 of the firms keep on all or most hourly employees. 1/6 of the firms keep on all or most salaried.

Both hourly and salaried employees are less likely to be kept on in pension firms.

A compulsory retirement policy is the main reason given for not keeping on all.

Other major reasons for not keeping on all: "not enough lower level jobs to which employees can be transferred: utilizing these employees would be "too costly".

Methods of utilizing employees who can no longer handle their usual jobs.—60% of the firms transferred employees to other jobs which they could handle. 40% relieved the employee of some of the normal duties of his job. 20% used both methods.

Conclusions.—Employees reaching 65 in a firm and still able to handle their usual job have a good chance of continued employment with the firm. 3/4 of the Minneapolis firms keep on all or most of their hourly employees. 1/2 of the Minneapolis firms keep on all or most of their salaried employees.

Employees who can no longer handle their usual jobs do not fare as well. 1/3 of the firms keep on all or most hourly employees; 1/6 of the firms keep on all or most of the salaried employees.

As the above conclusions indicate, hourly employees are kept on after 65 to a greater extent than salaried.

The continued rise of pension plans will endanger the utilization even now existing. Pension plans, especially those with a compulsory retirement clause, are the largest single factor in the non-utilization of persons over 65. There is almost a complete absence of formal planning to utilize older workers. Yet more and more older employees will be needed for either war or peace-time economy. A greater proportion of our population will fall into the older age groups in the future.

WHAT GOVERNMENT DOES FOR BEGGARS

Beggary is too complex a problem to be dealt with by individual worker or even institution. Naturally it leads us to the conclusion that such major social problems can only be solved on the State level. Therefore it would be interesting to know the way in which the Government tries to do away with this social evil of begging.

But no treatment can be accorded, before the multifarious causes which drive a man to begging are traced. As a well-known Sanskrit Subhashit: 'Diagnose the malady first and then prescribe the treatment.'

The following types of beggars swarm the streets of cities and religious places:—
(a) Able bodied men and women. (b) Physically disabled. (fully or partially disabled). (c) Mentally deficient (fully or partially defective), (d) Infirm beggars (Sick), (e) Child beggars.

Religious mendicants although forming a different category do fall in the types given above.

The treatment for these different types of beggars naturally varies. Those who have resorted to begging on account of poverty,

unemployment etc, should be found some work and taught to earn their livelihood by sweat of labour. Mentally deficient and sick persons who on account of their defects are unable to work and earn for themselves must necessarily go to Hospitals where they can be treated. Borderline cases physically infirm or need to be treated for their defects and also to be made to work according to their capacity.

Taking these factors into consideration attempts are being made to provide for the establishment of different institutions to cater to the needs of the various types of persons. The Beggars Homes at Visapur and Chembur are meant for able-bodied male and female beggars respectively though for want of special accommodation, beggars other than able-bodied are also kept therein. In the case of able-bodied beggars, probably laziness, unwillingness to work, economic distress, (unemployment) unfavourable family circumstances are the root causes of begging. The remedy lies in making them work and training them in some industry so as to make them fit to earn their own living. Accordingly, various industries such as weaving, carpentry, gardening agriculture, tailoring, chappal making, knitting, etc., have been introduced and a good number of persons are being trained in them. A Beggars Home at Worli in D. D. Chawls has been recently opened for able-bodied male beggars. In the case of Women forsaken by their guardians and who have no protection often take to begging. As soon as they are brought to the Beggars home, careful enquiries are made, and guardians, if any, are contacted; if their position is

satisfactory, the women are released to their care on an undertaking that they do not beg again.

Physically disabled and infirm persons including deaf, mute and dumb, blind and others having contagious diseases such as leprosy are sent to institutions which are equipped with facilities for treating the illness as well as with suitable training programme. Specially established hospital at Pui and the Acworth Leprosy Home in Bombay receive leprosy beggars under the Beggars Act. The Lady Dhunbai Jahangir Home maintains the disabled and infirm persons and provides for light industries such as knitting. The J. J. Dharmashala receives blind beggars where they are taught cane work, knitting and bidi making. Recently the Poona School and Home for the Blind which is equipped with good training facilities for the blind and the David Sasoon Infirm Asylum, Poona are also recognised by Government for receiving and training beggars. Beggars who are certified to be mentally deficient are sent to Mental Hospitals for treatment.

The treatment of child beggars needs special consideration. The disease of adults may possibly end with one generation but as children are makers of the next generation and breed the evil quickly and spread it over a vast area, they require special treatment. The disease has to be nipped in the bud. By suitable treatment, they can be an asset to the Nation. Therefore child beggars should be dealt with under the Bombay Children Act providing for protection, treatment and rehabilitation of children and youthful offenders.

DISCOVERY OF VACCINE AGAINST JAUNDICE.

Faster research to prevent viral hepatitis, also known as infectious jaundice, may now be possible, doctors in the United States report. They have found that a hepatitis virus that infects human beings can be grown in the tissues of fertilized chicken eggs. This discovery, which proved for the first time that these minute organisms could be developed in other than human tissue, opens a new method of experimentation.

Dr. Joseph Stocks, Jr. at the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, who directed the research, explains that at least two strains of hepatitis are prevalent in many parts of the world. The first one is present almost entirely in plasma, the liquid portion of the blood, and is transmittable through blood

transfusions. This has presented a problem in Red Cross "blood bank" programs, since no way has been found to detect the disease in seemingly normal persons who donate blood. The second strain is communicated through contaminated drinking water. It is this strain that has been developed in the chicken-egg tissue.

It is hoped that the discovery of this new medium for the virus may make possible the development of an effective vaccine by which persons can be immunized against hepatitis. Vaccines are made by reducing the strength of a virus through successive cultivations in some medium such as animal or plant tissue. Researchers are also working on a skin test to determine whether a person is susceptible to hepatitis or has had the disease.

 PROBATION OFFICER'S "IF"

If you can listen, yet be heard,
 Restrain or drive with just a word,
 Find values in what's pathetic,
 Be severe, yet sympathetic,
 Order, counsel, guide, befriend,
 Solve human problems without end,
 You'll then do well indeed, my friend.

If you can meet each daily need,
 With judgment sound and humane creed,
 Be tolerant, with faith in all,
 Yet never for deception fall,
 Deal kindly with each human vice,
 Walk firmly on the thinnest ice,
 Then, friend, your worth exceeds its price.

If daily you the people reach,
 And through each function try to teach
 Public welfare is primary,
 Other problems secondary,
 And that human dereliction
 Often is beyond prediction,
 You deserve benediction.

If facing failure, you stir hope,
 Yet keep success within its scope,
 If heart and mind rule all your acts,
 If you never fail to face the facts,
 Grow roses where before grew weeds,
 Help strength emerge from nurtured seeds,
 Then, friend, you meet probation's needs.

J. M. Master
 U. S. District Court, New York City.

INDIAN CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

FOURTH ANNUAL SESSION—JAMSHEDPUR DECEMBER 1950

The five-day 4th Annual Session of the Indian Conference of Social Work was held in Jamshedpur, Bihar, from Friday, 22nd to Tuesday, 26th December, 1950 under the presidentship of Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta, Minister for Public Works and Housing, Government of Bombay.

After the Conference was inaugurated by Shri Anugrah Narayan Sinha, Minister for Finance, Government of Bihar on Friday, December 22nd, Dr. Jivraj N. Mehta delivered the Presidential Address in which he pointed out, *inter alia*, that the emphasis in social work was shifting from mere avoidance of starvation and prevention of disease to adequate standard of life and living, which, he said, was the most significant development taking place in the field of social work.

Discussing the scope and nature of social work, he said:

We must admit that the important function of social work is to make individuals independent—help the person to help himself. He further pointed out that the main function of social work is to bring to the handicapped person the resources of the community with a view to rehabilitating him.

On the following day, the Conference was addressed by its four Sectional Chairmen, Dr. R. R. Kaithan, Gandhigram (Rural Reconstruction and Rural Welfare)

Dr. P. V. Cherian (Health Services and Social Welfare)

Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao (The University and National Social Services) and

Dr. K. C. K. E. Raja (Public Welfare)

who discussed their respective themes giving

a concrete and a clear lead to the deliberations of their sections.

Thereupon, the Conference divided itself into four sections which held two meetings each on the subsequent days when seven different memoranda, submitted by eminent workers in their respective fields, were presented to the delegates and observers participating in the work. The memoranda related to the fields of Rural Welfare, Health Education, University Students and Social Work Training, and Public Welfare at National, State and Municipal Levels. Dr. B. H. Mehta of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences in his illuminating paper on "Public Welfare" reiterated the plea for the establishment of a Ministry for Public Welfare both at the Centre and in the States and defined the nature and scope of such a Ministry.

After full and fair deliberations for two days, the sections formulated their concrete recommendations for the Plenary Session. Among other things, the Conference recommended training of efficient rural workers and promotion of rural welfare in different directions. The Session also stressed the need for the enforcement of the Employees' State Insurance Act as early as possible and recommended the appointment of National Board of Physical Fitness and Education by the Union Government and corresponding Boards by State Governments. It also stressed the need for Health Education on as wide a scale as possible. The Conference adopted the recommendations of the Section on *University and National Social Services* and noted with satisfaction the growth of schools of social work in India. It emphasised the desirability of adequate opportunities for social work by university students and recommended that universities should take

appropriate steps to give a social work bias in their curriculum. While pleading for the establishment of a Ministry of Social Welfare at National and State Levels, the Conference also suggested machinery for co-ordinating all social welfare activities by the formation of a cabinet sub-committee constituted of the representatives of the existing ministries dealing with different aspects of social welfare. It also recommended strongly that governments, both Central and States, should establish at least one community centre in each case and encourage the establishment of community chests and councils of social welfare agencies on a regional basis to co-ordinate development of social work.

A special feature of the Session was the organisation of a "Posters and Photographs

Exhibition" with a view to harnessing artistic talent in the country for the promotion of social welfare.

About 250 delegates and observers from different parts of the country participated in the work of the Conference and gained interesting experience of the various welfare activities carried on in Jamshedpur by the authorities of Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd. Institutional visits were arranged for the guests to different places of interest in the steel town.

At the outset, a condolence resolution expressing a profound sense of sorrow at the sad demise of the Hon'ble Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, Deputy Prime Minister of India, was adopted.

BOOK REVIEWS

Women in Marital Conflict—A Case Work Study.—By Dr. Florence Hollis, Family Service Association of America, New York, 1949 (Pp. 236 \$3.50).

The vital contributions of Dr. Hollis' articles and case studies to social case work practice arouses interest in this book. It is a study of 100 families, based on a random sampling from eleven large family service agencies after the completion of the treatment period. From this material, an effort is made to classify factors which are detrimental to a happy marital adjustment under personality factors and external factors. In Chapter II through VII, personality factors like excessive dependence, the need to suffer, rejection of femininity, sexual maladjustments contributing to marital conflicts are discussed. Chapters VIII, IX, X deal with external contributing factors like interference of relatives, economic factors and differences in cultural background.

Though the study is based upon a very limited number of cases and the factors dis-

cussed in the book relate almost entirely to the wives and thus is one sided, yet its value cannot be overlooked. The book familiarises the reader with some important factors that lead to marital conflict. Chapter XI entitled "The Range of Casework Treatment" is a brief but sound presentation of several types of treatment. Chapter XII 'A Critical Note on Treatment Practices' throws further light on the primary requirement for work in marital conflict cases. Thus in a profuse literature on marital maladjustment, this presentation stands in fair comparison with a few other contributions as being particularly useful to social workers for several reasons: its knowledge, its theory, all are expressed in simple language with a minimum use of technical terms and with illustrations within the range of casework practice..

G. R. Banerjee.

Your Child or Mine.—The Story of the Cerebral Palsied Child. By Mary Lousie Hart Burton and Sage Holter Jennings. Coward McCann Inc., New York, 1949 (pp. 64 \$1.25).

In these sixtyfour pages, the authors have presented valuable information supplemented by photographs about cerebral palsy. This book contains the stories of six children suffering from six different types of cerebral palsy. Each type is discussed briefly and the reader is enabled to get a general picture of the nature of the disease as well as some of the social and emotional components involved in it. The story of each child gives an insight into the difficulties that parents have in obtaining competent medical aid, their anxiety and frustrations in the search for adequate care and the long and tedious

methods of treatment required for the disease.

The authors have been able to convey in simple language a good deal of medical information which a non-medical reader can easily understand. The Glossary of some medical terms given at the end of the book helps a lay reader to understand the material presented.

There are very few books where medical information is imparted in non-technical language. This work has unique contribution to make in familiarising the lay man

with the causes, symptoms and treatment methods of a crippling disease like cerebral palsy about which not much has so far been made known. People in general and social workers interested in child welfare pro-

gramme in particular will find this book helpful in broadening their knowledge about the problem of crippled children.

G. R. Banerjee.

Trends In Social Work.—As reflected in the Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, 1874-1946: by Frank J. Bruno, 387 pp. 1948—published by Columbia University Press, New York; and Oxford University Press, London and Bombay. \$4.50.

Mr. Bruno's book presents a history of the developments that have taken place in the field of social work from 1874 to 1946 in the U. S. A., as reflected in the proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work. The chronological data is presented in topical form, showing the trend of thought, that has evolved in various directions. The history of seventy-two years is divided into three periods, 1874 to 1898, 1898 to 1924, and 1924 to 1946. In each period the topics are selected which seemed to be prominent in the minds of the members of the Conference. In the first period, subjects like founding fathers, concern of the insane and the feeble-minded protection of children, English Poor laws in America, concern of the delinquent, personnel in public service, charity organisation, migration, immigration, and transiency are discussed. In the second period, the topics like universities and social services, development of professional association, birth of the United States' Children's Bureau, formation of the Council of Social Agencies and Community Chest, reforms in child labour and juvenile court practices, change-over from public relief to Public Welfare, recognition of Social Case Work are presented. In the last period, the author discusses subjects like health insurance, social insurance, social group work, evolution of Social Case work, prevention of delinquency, care of the unemployed, social security and social reforms. The book also contains thirteen pages of Index for easy reference.

The history of the National Conference of Social Work in the U. S. A. is the history of social work itself. Its pages cover "heroic efforts the social workers have made in establishing a more democratic, humane and scientifically sound concept of social sciences." This book, therefore, presents an account of an important segment in the total history of the United States. The author has fulfilled admirably the assignment given to him by the Executive Committee of the N. C. S. W., "of recounting the developments of the Conference". It must have been a heavy task of sifting the large volume of source material as reflected in the Proceedings in a concise book of this size. As the author himself admits, this book has become a reflection of his interest by which he selected the data to build up his thesis. Although the book is meant to present reflections at the N. C. S. W. as are recorded in its proceedings, the author has utilised outside data, his personal experience as teacher and practitioner of social work and his knowledge of contemporary thought and social reform. He has made efforts to interpret the events of the Conference against changing national and international background. At the same time the author seemed to have scrupulously avoided the reflection of his personal bias in presenting the trends in social work. It must be, however, pointed out that each chapter makes a story of its own and the book lacks continuity of thought from one period to another. No efforts have been

made to follow any particular topic into the next period, or throughout all the three periods. Because of the adoption of this method of presentation, the book is likely to become a hard reading for those who are not well versed with the day to day development and the historic conditioning of the social life in U. S. A.

The book, to the professional social workers in India, will prove an easy reference for consultation on the trends in the development of social services and the processes utilised to render them useful. To the members of Indian Conference of Social Work, it will help to visualise, as it has been pointed out in the Foreword by Shelby M. Harrison, how the work of any conference of social work could be developed so as to make it "a national clearing-house of

ideas and experiences, a national medium for the exchange of opinions, a national forum in which to debate and appraise differing theories, policies and practices, a platform from which could be presented fresh information on social problems and methods of dealing with them as the frontiers of knowledge are moved forward." In India of to-day, the national, state and community planning has to be evolved out of the existing needs and the resources and the capacity to handle them so as to create an increasingly better balance between them. This book will help us to understand how equal opportunities could be created for workers and organisations in the field of social work to appraise their own work, to express their own differences, and then above all to set up professional course for the future.

M. Nanavatty.

Social Insurance for Industrial Workers in India.—By Dr. S. D. Punekar—Oxford University Press, 1950, pp. 228, Price Rs. 10/-.

The history of the last fifty years is a story of gradual shift from the theory of *laissez faire* to the concept of Welfare State. In the world of today, the State takes upon itself the responsibility for the total welfare of its citizens. This development has been due, more than anything else, to the two World Wars and the Great Depression of the thirties, which let loose upon the world a wave of economic and political uncertainty, endangering the security and welfare of private individuals. Hence we witness today almost every government taking measures to ensure a minimum of social security to its citizens.

It is against this background that the present work of Dr. Punekar, "Social Insurance for Industrial Workers in India" has to be viewed and studied.

The book is divided into two parts. In the first part, the author gives a comprehensive background to the whole question and studies the problem in seven chapters, covering Minimum Standards of Social Insurance, Maternity Protection, Workmen's Compensation, Sickness Insurance, Invalidity: Old Age and Widows' and Orphans' Insurance, Unemployment Insurance and Social Security for Seafarers. Dr. Punekar presents his study of these problems in the light of the developments in this sphere in the foreign countries as well as in the light of the various resolutions and conventions adopted by the International Labour Organization. A student of social security position in some of the advanced countries of the West, is bound to get valuable information for his study in this part of the book.

In the second part, Dr. Punekar describes the various provisions of the Employees' State Insurance Act 1948 and critically examines its shortcomings. Discussing the question of contributions to the scheme, he points out that the lowest group of employees, i.e., those whose average daily wages are less than Re. 1, are exempted from paying any contribution. The author takes exception to this and suggests that this group should have been charged a nominal contribution of at least half-an-anna. His reasons for this are interesting. "An employee who gets 'free' benefits may take them as charity and would not take an interest in the fund by right A fair number of employees in Indian factories may belong to this class. After the present inflationary period, this number is likely to increase considerably. Even very low contributions from a large number of people may bring in valuable income to the funds of the Corporation." These suggestions of Dr. Punekar are well worth consideration by the Government when they actually start implementing the Act.

Dr. Punekar makes an effective plea for a unified scheme of social security. He studies the various factors necessary for evolving such a scheme under six main headings: coverage of all citizens, compre-

hensive medical service, adequacy of cash benefits, social security system and administration. The problem of social security is a stupendous task and to achieve it India will have to make great efforts by coordinating her various resources, grouping her manifold industries conveniently, so that by well-defined stages, the ideal of social security may be attained. Dr. Punekar aptly puts it: "The success of social security in any country depends on various factors, such as, the employment policy, wage levels, standard of living, utilisation of human and natural resources, health services, etc. The State can be made primarily responsible for all these factors and consequently for the success of the social security system." India's leaders should particularly take note of these remarks as they are committed to building a Welfare State in our country.

The author's patience in collecting the relevant data is really remarkable and should be admired. He has presented in this book in a well-written and digested form a scheme of social security for India.

The book is stimulating and is bound to prove an interesting and instructive guide to every student of social security today and in future.

S. Seshadri.

The Economic Weekly—Annual Number 1951 (Bombay).—This is the second annual number of this journal. This special issue contains interesting articles, such as, "The Industrial Policy of the Government," "The Welfare State—A Popular Myth", "The Theory of Blackmarket Pricing—a Re-Statement", "Limitations of New Economics" "Estimation of Our National Income—Analysis of Underlying Issues" and others written by specialists, which discuss in an international setting the current economic and political,

financial and industrial problems facing our country. What should interest a reader of this Journal is the independent and impartial discussion of the problems that the authors have chosen to write on; there is no attempt to justify the stand of any political party or popularise a pre-conceived notion or theory.

Mr. Sachin Chaudhury, the Editor himself a forceful writer, reviews the state of the Indian Republic in three leading articles. Estimating the financial position of India, he has correctly forecast that in the

budget for 1951-'52, India's Finance Minister will have no other means but of raising taxation to meet the deficit in the country's capital budget. Mr. Chaudhury casts doubts on the validity of our present foreign policy of neutrality. He asks, "Can a country like ours with so low an economic potential, dependent on foreign supplies for her most essential needs in food, oil-fuel and strategic raw materials of industry, aspire to avoid entanglements and steer an independent course of her own.....?" This is a poser for our statesmen as well as for all students

of India's politics. The Editor has to be congratulated on the independent course of criticism that he himself is following in the world of journalism in which one and all are tied to this or that bloc of vested interests.

This Annual Number is neat and attractive. Its utility to a future research student of our economic and political problems would have increased if the Editor had included an index to all the articles published in his weekly during 1950-'51.

S. Seshadri.

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